

THE *Gal. L. C. C.*
P R E S E N T S T A T E
O F
E U R O P E:

Exhibiting a View of the
NATURAL AND CIVIL HISTORY
OF THE SEVERAL
COUNTRIES and KINGDOMS:

THEIR PRESENT
CONSTITUTION and FORM of GOVERNMENT; their
CUSTOMS, MANNERS, LAWS, and RELIGION; their
ARTS, SCIENCES, MANUFACTURES, and COMMERCE;
their MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS, PUBLIC TREA-
TIES, and POLITICAL INTERESTS and CONNEXIONS.

To which is prefixed,
An INTRODUCTORY DISCOURSE on the
Principles of POLITY and GOVERNMENT.

By M. E. TOTZÉ,
Late Secretary to the University of Gottingen, and now Professor of
History in the University of Butzow, and Duchy of Mecklenburg.

Translated from the GERMAN

By THOMAS NUGENT, LL.D.
And Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries.

V O L. II.

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THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EUROPE

Containing a View of the
NATURAL AND CIVIL HISTORY
OF THE SEVERAL
COUNTRIES AND KINGDOMS:

THEIR PRESENT
Constitution and Form of Government; their
Customs, Manners, Laws, and Religion; their
Arts, Sciences, and Commerce;
their Military Establishments, Public Treas-
uries, and Political Connections.

AN INTRODUCTORY DISCOURSE on the
Principles of Polity and Government.

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History in the University of Berlin, and Deputy of Mathematics.

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P R E S E N T S T A T E O F E U R O P E .

C H A P . I V .
F R A N C E .

S E C T . I .

GAUL was the ancient name of that large and powerful kingdom which we call France, from the Franks, who conquered it. In the middle ages it was called in Latin Franco-Gallia, or Francia *; and from thence is derived its French name, France.

* Francia is indeed found in very ancient writers, (Vid. Eumenii Panegy. Constantino dict. c. X. §. 2.) and on a coin of the emperor Constantine. But at that time it could mean no more than the part of Germany and the Netherlands which the Franks then inhabited. See Joach. Oudaan's Roman Power, written in Dutch, p. 137.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

S E C T. II.

Situation,
limits, and
extent.

France lies betwixt the 42d and 52d degree of northern latitude, and the 15th and 30th of western longitude *. Its northern boundaries are the Channel, or the British ocean; eastward it confines on Germany, Swisserland, Savoy, and Piedmont †; southwards on the Mediterranean and Spain; and its western limit is the Atlantic ocean. Its greatest length, from Cape Conquet, in Brittany, to Strasburg, is 200 leagues; and its breadth, from south to north, from Rouffillon to Dunkirk, makes 150 leagues. Its whole content is reckoned at 10,000 geographical miles ‡.

S E C T. III.

Air and
tempera-
ture.

The climate of France makes it one of the best and pleasantest countries in Eu-

* This is the situation given it by Piganiol de la Force, in his *Nouvelle Description de la France*; but in the Maps, where the meridian begins at the island of Ferro, France reaches from the 13th to the 26th degree of western longitude.

† On the 24th of March, 1760, new limits were agreed on between the kings of France and Sardinia, by which the town of Chezery, with its dependencies, was to belong to France, which gave up in exchange, part of the valley of Seissel, and several other districts. *New Genealogical and Historical Accounts*, Part 147—150.

‡ See Busching's *Geography*. De la Force (Tom. I. p. 3.) says, that France contains 30,000 French square leagues, in which he must certainly exceed.

rope,

rope *, being subject neither to the severe cold of the northern, nor to the sultry heats of the more southern climates; and particularly in the middle parts, nothing can be more mild and temperate.

S E C T. IV.

The Pyrenees separate France from Spain, ^{Hills.} as the Alps from Italy. In Languedoc are the Cevennes and Alps, and the country of Auvergne is likewise full of high mountains. The county of Burgundy is separated from Switzerland by the Jura Chain, as Lorrain is from Alsace by the mountains of Vauge.

S E C T. V.

The principal rivers in France are :

Rivers.

1. The Loire, which rises in Languedoc, out of the mountain Gerbier le Joux, between the Vivarais and Velai; and after watering the provinces of Nivernois, Orleanois, Touraine, and Anjou, and receiving several other rivers in its course, discharges itself into the Atlantic ocean, fifteen leagues below Nantz in Brittany.

2. The Seine. The source of this river is above Chanceaux, two leagues from St.

* Comines, Book IV. chap. vi. says, " We partake of the torrid and the frigid zone; and therefore it is that we have people of both complexions. But, in my opinion, there is not in the whole Universe a country better situated than France."

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

Seine. It runs through Paris, passes by Rouen, and joins the Channel between Havre de Grace and Honfleur.

3. The Rhone. This river rises in Mount Furke, in Swisserland, through which it runs into the lake of Geneva, and after leaving it four leagues below that town, loses itself in a narrow clift of a rock : from whence it passes by Seiffel and Lyons, and discharges itself into the Mediterranean by three mouths, Gras de Sauze, Sainte Anne, and le Grand Gras.

4. The Garonne, which issues from the mountain of Aure in the Pyrenees, into the valley of Aran in Gascony. At Bec d'Ambez it joins the Dordogne, when it is called the Gironde ; and runs into the Atlantic ocean by two mouths, Le Pas des Anes, and Le Pas de Grave (*a*).

All these rivers are navigable, and communicate either with themselves, or with other rivers, by canals.

S E C T. VI.

Fertility in
the animal
kingdom.

France has in all ages been celebrated for its fertility (*b*), and very justly, as producing sufficiently, and even abundantly, almost every thing requisite to the necessity, con-

(*a*) Description de la France, par M. Pig. de la Force, Tom. I. p. 4. & foll.

(*b*) Solini Polyhist. c. xxiii.

veniency,

venience, and pleasure of life, The animal kingdom affords horned cattle, sheep (1), game (2), wild and tame fowl. In horses, and particularly the large and strong kind, it is somewhat deficient; but this in several parts is made up by asses and mules (3). The southern provinces afford silk-worms, which spin great quantities of silk, but not sufficient to supply the manufactures. France is well supplied with fish, both from the sea and the rivers (4).

The vegetable kingdom in France is very considerable; for besides timber, and wood for fuel (5), it produces the best kind of

(1) Languedoc, Berry, and Roussillon, have the most and best. Those of the last province yield a very fine and beautiful wool. *Pig. de la Force*, Tom. VI. p. 645.

(2) Dauphiné produces white hares; and among its mountains are found bears, wild goats, and shamois. *De la Force*, Tom. III. p. 364, 365, 366.

(3) Chiefly in Poitou and Berry, where a very great trade of those useful beasts is carried on. See *De la Force*, Tom. IV. p. 406. and *Boulainvilliers*, in his *State of France*, Tom. II. p. 267.

(4) Normandy and Brittany afford plenty of salmon. *De la Force*, Tom. IV. p. 486. and Tom. V. p. 72. Pilchards are caught on the coasts of Languedoc and Brittany. Ditto, Tom. IV. p. 93, 484, 485, 486. In the river Charente, in Saintonge, is found a species of large muscles, in which are pearls not inferior to the Oriental. Ditto, Tom. IV. p. 327. It is observed of sea-fish, that those of the Mediterranean are not near so good as those of the ocean. Ditto, Tom. IV. p. 420.

(5) Of wood for fuel a scarcity is said to be already felt; but of ship-timber, Dauphiné, Provence, and especially the Pyrenean mountains, have plenty. *De la Force*, Tom. III. p. 391—421. and Tom. IV. p. 237.

apples, pears (6), plums, peaches, apricots, chefnuts, and olive-trees (7). Several of the provinces also afford capers, saffron, woad, and tobacco : but of all the fruits and vegetables in France, the most profitable is the vine, with which all the provinces abound, Picardy alone excepted (8). The French fruits and vegetables are exquisite. In common years the corn of its own growth suffices ; but it is subject to frequent scarcities from several causes (9). Of hemp and flax it has likewise a sufficiency.

The fossile
kingdom.

France affords minerals, but with little or none of the two principal metals, gold and silver. For though anciently very fine gold was found in Gaul (c), yet the mines

(6) Brittany and Normandy make great quantities of cyder and perry.

(7) The olive-trees are mostly in Provence, Languedoc, and Roussillon. De la Forte, Tom. III. p. 419. Tom. IV. p. 83. Tom. VI. p. 622. Besides olive-trees, Provence likewise yields pomegranates, oranges, lemons, palm, almond, and fig-trees. Ditto, Tom. III. p. 419.

(8) I apprehend that Normandy and Bretagne may also be excepted. T.

The best and most celebrated French wines are, Champagne, Burgundy, Vin-de-grave, Pontac, Muscadel, Frontignac, Hermitage, &c. Of the smaller wines, and which will not bear exportation, are made vinegar and brandy.

(9) These causes are the want of granaries, the heavy taxes, war, and the too great cultivation of the vine.

(c) Pliny, Lib. XXXIII. cap. iv.

have

have been long since exhausted (10); and the few silver veins remaining are not of such richness as to clear the costs of working them (11). Copper it has plenty (12), and still more iron (13); but very little tin and lead. Though France yields no gems (14), it has excellent marble (15), and some parts abound in pit-coal (16). Salt is made both from springs and from the sea (17): and saltpetre in most parts of the

(10) Gold indeed is cast from the river Auriege in Languedoc, and in Alsace from the sand of the Rhine; but so little as to be scarce worth mentioning. De la Force, Tom. IV. p. 86. Tom. VI. p. 439.

(11) Upper Alsace has silver mines, but of little profit. De la Force, Tom. IV. p. 444. The silver mines in Burgundy are said to be something richer. Ditto, 531.

(12) The chief copper countries are Picardy, Champagne, Dauphiné, Lyonnais, Bearn.

(13) Iron abounds, and some very good, in the county of Burgundy, Dauphiné, Foix, Nivernois, Angoumois, Maine, Normandy, and Hainault. That in Dauphiné and Angoumois is very malleable, and used for cannon, bombs, and bullets. De la Force, Tom. III. p. 390. Tom. IV. p. 350. Steel is made of the Nivernois iron. Tom. V. p. 339.

(14) Small stones are found in the Bourbonnois, near Bourbon l'Archambaut, which have a very near resemblance to diamonds, and even cut glass. De la Force, Tom. V. p. 376.

(15) Provence, Languedoc, Guienne, Gascony, the Bourbonnois, Maine, have marble quarries.

(16) Pit-coal is found in Gascony, Guienne, Nivernois, Brittany, Picardy, and especially in Hainault. That of the last is accounted better than even the English. De la Force, Tom. VI. p. 285.

(17) The salt springs are in the duchy and county of Burgundy. Of sea-salt considerable quantities are made in the parts confining on the ocean. That of the Pays d'Aunis in Saintonge, is particularly esteemed. De la Force, Tom. IV. p. 328—363.

kingdom (18). France has many mineral waters and warm baths; and some famous for their virtues in certain distempers.

S E C T. VII.

Division of
the mo-
narchy.

The provinces of which France at present consists, were, at the accession of the Capetian family to the throne, so far from being immediately subject to the crown, that most of them had their particular princes, who indeed held their lands as fiefs from the kings. But on the extinction of their families, their lands became successively annexed to the crown; and this, in process of time, gave occasion to the division of the country into governments (*Gouvernemens Generaux*). These in the time of Francis I. were nine; which afterwards, in the civil wars under Francis II. and Charles IX. were increased. Henry III. by an edict, settled their number at twelve: 1. Isle de France. 2. Burgundy. 3. Normandy, 4. Guienne. 5. Brittany. 6. Champagne. 7. Languedoc. 8. Picardy. 9. Dauphiné. 10. Provence. 11. Lyonnois; and 12. Orleannois. But under Lewis XIV. this number was, by the newly-conquered countries,

(18) The most is made in Touraine, of the sand-stone, common in that country. Boulainvilliers, Tom. I. p. 31.

and

and curtailments from most of the other governments, augmented two-thirds (*d*); so that at present there are thirty-seven, in this order: 1. Paris. 2. Isle de France. 3. Picardy and Artois. 4. Champagne. 5. Burgundy. 6. Dauphiné. 7. Provence. 8. Languedoc. 9. Foix. 10. Roussillon. 11. Navarre. 12. Guienne. 13. Saintonge and Angoumois. 14. Ounais. 15. Poitou. 16. Brittany. 17. Normandy. 18. Havre de Grace. 19. Maine, Perche, and Laval. 20. Orleanois. 21. Nivernois. 22. Bourbonnois. 23. Lyonnois. 24. Auvergne. 25. Limoufin. 26. La Marche. 27. Berry. 28. Touraine. 29. Anjou. 30. Saumur. 31. Flanders. 32. Metz. 33. Lorrain. 34. Verdun. 35. Toul. 36. Alsace. 37. The county of Burgundy *.

S E C T. VIII.

It is not a little remarkable, that in France, where every thing has been brought under the royal prerogative, there are still two countries quite free and independent, and

Independent
principalities in
France.

(*d*) De la Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 2. p. 407, 408,
* M. De Real (Science du Governem. Part. I. Tom. II. p. 12.) says, that France has thirty-seven governments; but without giving the names of them. Some writers make Dunkirk a particular government, and others Boulogne.

invested

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

invested with the sovereignty. These are the counties of Avignon and Venaissin, and the principality of Dombes. The former, which belong to the See of Rome *, are hemmed in by Provence. The third, of which the duke du Maine is proprietor †, lies in the duchy of Burgundy.

Orange was likewise a free principality; but on the failure of the male line of that illustrious family, in the person of William III. king of England, it was sequestered, and has been annexed to the government of Dauphiné ‡.

There are farther, the free principalities of Bouillon and Monaco. The former is,

* Joan, queen of Naples and countess of Provence, in the year 1348, sold to Pope Clement VI. for 80,000 florins, the Venaissin, which formerly belonged to the Counts of Toulouse, and had before, in 1273, been given by Philip III. king of France, to Pope Gregory X. Henault Nouv. Abregé Chronol. Tom. IV. p. 296. The abbé St. Pierre (Annal. Polit. Part. II. p. 343.) mentions it as an oversight in the French court, not to embrace the opportunity of acquiring Avignon, which the treaty of Vienna, 1735, put into its hands.

† Gaston, duke of Orleans, brother to Lewis XIII. had the principality of Dombes, by his marriage with Mary de Montpensier. On his decease, it went to his only daughter Mary-Ann-Louisa; who gave it to Lewis-Augustus, duke of Maine, a natural son of Lewis XIV. De Real, Science du Gouvernem. Ch. I. Tom. II. p. 19.

‡ William-Frederic, king of Prussia, at the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, ceded his claim to the principality of Orange to the crown of France, reserving the title and arms. Du Mont. Corps Diplom. Tom VIII. Part. I. p. 337. Lewis XV. in the year 1722, conferred the principality of Orange on the Prince of Conti. Busching's Geography.

in a great measure, environed by the duchy of Luxemburg; but the latter lies in Italy, between the county of Nice and the Genoese territories, under the protection of France *.

S E C T. IX.

The French, by means of commerce and navigation, have extended their dominion into the other three parts of the world; possessing,

Depend-
cies.

I. In Asia, on the coast of Coromandel, In Asia, Pondicherry; which, by the French East-India Company, has been made a place of vast trade, and likewise well fortified; together with several others on the coast of Malabar and Bengal (19).

* Bouillon belongs to the house of La Tour d'Auvergne, and Monaco to that of Matignon-Torigny. See Supplem. au Corps Univers. Diplomat. Tom. II. Part. I. p. 401. and M. De Real, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 20—24.

(19) The French trading company, which was erected in the year 1679, by that celebrated minister of state Colbert, purchased the country about Pondicherry from the king of Visapour. But in 1693, the Dutch took the place, and fortified it in the best manner. Being restored to the French at the peace of Ryswick, it was by them greatly enlarged, and with additional fortifications. History of the French Commerce in the Indies, in the Modern Universal History, Vol. XI. p. 96, 97, &c. But in January 1761, the English making themselves masters of Pondicherry, razed the fortifications, and carried away the artillery. The other French settlements in these parts, as Arcote, Bandewalli, Baldore, Alacopang, Carical, Carangole, Chilleput, Vantuchellam, Alemparre, Coperpokue, Balemore, Chellimbonegh, and Mihie,

II. In

In Africa.

II. In Africa, the island of Goree (20), at Cape de Verd ; Arguin, at Cape Blanco ; and in Guinea, Fort François. In the Indian ocean, the island of Bourbon (21) and Isle de France (22) ; both at no great distance from the large island of Madagascar.

In America.

III. In America, the French are possessed of that part of Louisiana lying westward of the river Mississippi (23), and a part of Guiana, which by some is indeed called France Equinoxiale, with the adjacent island of Cayenne. They have likewise the western part of the large and fruitful island of Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, the island of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Marie Galante, La Desirada (24),

were involved in the like fate. In the peace concluded at Paris, the 13th of February 1763, these places were all restored to the French, but in the condition to which they had been reduced by the war.

(20) This island, together with Fort Louis, and other places on the Senegal, were taken by the English in 1758. Goree has been restored to the French ; but Fort Louis, and the other places, the English have retained.

(21) The Portuguese, who first settled in this island, called it Mascarenhas. The French took possession of it in 1654. Description of the island of Bourbon, London, 1672.

(22) It was formerly called Mauritius Island, a name it received from the Dutch.

(23) The part of Florida lying east of the Mississippi, together with Canada and Cape Breton, were ceded to the crown of Great-Britain at the peace of Paris, Art. IV. V. VI. VII. only the two small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon being left to the French for the conveniency of their fisheries.

(24) All these islands the English had made themselves masters of in the last war ; but it was thought advisable at the peace of Paris to give them back to the French, Art. VII.

and

and St. Lucia (25). These islands are excellently cultivated, so as to yield very great quantities of sugar and coffee: the latter was first planted there by the French.

The West-India colonies are a property of the crown, which accordingly appoints the governor: whereas the sovereignty of the East-India and African possessions is lodged in the East-India company.

S E C T. X.

That part of Gaul lying on the Mediter-
 ranean sea, was reduced under the domi-
 nion of the Romans by Fabius Maximus;
 and Julius Cæsar completed the conquest of
 the whole country. They kept possession
 of it till the fifth century, when the Bur-
 gundians, Visigoths, Britons, and Franks,
 settled themselves in several parts of Gaul.
 The latter, under their king Clovis, by
 one signal victory put an end to the Roman
 government, and erected a powerful mo-
 narchy. Clovis's sons and descendants not
 only weakened it by their frequent par-
 titions, but wanting capacity and firmness to

Revolutions
in France.

(25) These and St. Vincent, Dominico and Tabago, belong to the Neutral Islands, as they are called. At the peace of Paris, Art. IX. a division was made of them between the French and English; by which the former have St. Lucia, and to the English are assigned St. Vincent, Dominico, and Tabago.

wield the sceptre, sunk into a total dependency on their Mayors of the Palace (26), retaining no more than the pageantry of royalty. At length Childeric III. was formally deposed, and confined in a convent, where he died, which was likewise the fate of his son Theodoric.

Pepin, the author of this great revolution, ascended the throne; and though his claim was exceptionable, his qualities rendered him worthy of such elevation. His son, Charles the Great, enlarged the dominion of the Franks, making considerable conquests in Germany, Italy, and Spain, and acquired for himself and his successors the title of Emperor of the West; which had lain dormant above 300 years. The empire of the Franks at the time of his demise, reached from the Ebro to the Raab in Hungary, and from the Eider to the lower part of Italy. But it was totally dismembered by the partitions between his three grandsons, Lotharius, Lewis, and Charles. The youngest of these princes, Charles, surnamed the Bald, had for his share France; and on the failure of his elder brother, the emperor Lotharius, he succeeded him in his dignity, which his successors were so far from maintaining, that

(26) *Majores Domus.*

they

they were stripped of their authority, and by degrees, of the kingdom itself, through the very same errors and defects by which the Merovingians had lost the crown. Charles the Simple, unable to make head against the Normans, who ravaged France with continual incursions, found himself obliged to give up to them a part of the duchy of Neustria, as a royal fief, and on that occasion called Normandy. In this manner it⁹¹² was that the governors of provinces erected themselves into hereditary lords paramount, under the titles of dukes and counts (27). Lewis V. the last of the descendants of Charles the Great, was possessed only of⁹⁸⁷ Laon and Soissons, with some other small districts; and even these were disputed him (e).

Charles, duke of Lorrain, his father's brother, though next heir to the crown, was excluded by Hugh Capet, duke of France, whose male descendants are in possession of it to this day. His first successors were involved in many difficulties,

(27) Among the great vassals in France at the time of the failure of the Carlovingian race, the principal were, the dukes of Burgundy, France, Normandy, Aquitaine or Guienne, and Gascony; with the counts of Flanders, Champagne, and Toulouse. Brittany had also its own dukes, which at that time were *arriere* vassals of the dukes of Normandy. Mezeray *Abregé Chronolog. de l'Hist de France*, Tom. I. p. 302. & Velly, Tom. II. p. 248, & foll.

(e) Velly, *Histoire de France*, Tom. II. p. 245.

on

1152

on account of their very feeble authority, and the great strength of their vassals. William duke of Normandy having conquered England in 1066, and Henry count of Anjou and Maine, afterwards king of England, having married Eleonora, heiress of Guienne and Poitou, the English thereby got possession of lands in France to the extent of more than one-fourth part of the kingdom. Philip II. however, dexterously availing himself of the circumstances of the times, dispossessed them of every thing except Guienne.

1248

Lewis IX. induced by a superstitious devotion, undertook a very unfortunate croisade to Egypt and Palestine, and another to Tunis, in which he died; but these expeditions gained him a canonization. His brother Alphonse of Poitiers, became, by his marriage with Joan, countess of Toulouse, lord of that county; which on his death escheated to the crown: and another of the royal brothers, Charles of Anjou, acquired the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily; which gave the French the first pretence to interfere in the affairs of Italy.

1316

Philip IV. resolutely asserted his prerogative against that haughty and ambitious pope Boniface VIII. and made the see of Rome, under Clement V. and several of his successors, dependent on France. His three sons,
Lewis

Lewis X. Philip V. and Charles IV. died ¹³¹⁶ within a few years of each other, and with- ¹³²² out leaving any male issue. By these suc- ¹³²⁸ cessive deaths Philip VI. count of Valois, came to the throne, which Edward III. king of England, disputed with him in a long and vigorous war. Though Philip ¹³³⁹ was unsuccessful in many things, yet did he add to the crown the counties of Champagne, La Brie, Dauphiné, and Montpellier. His son John terminated the contest with the English by the peace of Bretagne, ceding to them Poitou, Saintonge, Aunis, Angoumois, Perigord, Limousin, and Calais. On the other hand, the duchy of ¹³⁶⁷ Burgundy devolved to him (28); but he gave it to his fourth son, Philip, who founded the younger house of Burgundy.

Charles V. had greatly reduced the English dominion in France; but during the turbulent reign of his delirious son Charles VI. Henry V. king of England, conquered the greater part of France; and on his marrying the princess Catherine, the succession to the throne was solemnly promised him. By his early death, Charles ¹⁴²⁰ VII. ascended the throne, and had the

(28) By the death of Philip, the last duke of the old line of Burgundy.

good fortune to recover all the English conquests, Calais excepted.

His son, Lewis XI. by his arbitrary administration, paved the way to an unlimited prerogative (29.) On the death of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, he sequestrated that duchy, as a fief escheated to him; and by the will of Charles of Anjou, titular king of Naples, he inherited the counties of Provence, Anjou, and Maine, together with a claim to Naples.

Charles VIII. who succeeded his father Lewis XI. married an heiress of Brittany, which afterwards occasioned its being united to the crown (30). He likewise made good his father's claim to Naples, by reducing that kingdom; but was not able to keep it.

He was succeeded by the duke of Orleans, under the name of Lewis XII. who

(29) He chose rather to follow his wild imaginations, than be guided by the wise laws of the state; and made his grandeur to consist in oppressing the people, abusing the nobility, and raising people of mean extraction. This is what a certain author has called "making kings their own men." He should rather have said, "making kings mad-men." Mezeray, Tom. II. p. 713.

(30) Queen Anne, on the demise of Charles VIII. married his successor, Lewis XII. Claudia, her eldest daughter by this second marriage, was married to Francis, count of Angoulême, afterwards king; and in 1532, he, in a formal instrument, united Brittany to the crown. Boulainvilliers Etat de France, Tom. II. p. 54.

having

having a pretension to the duchy of Milan, in right of his grand-mother, possessed himself of it by force of arms. Likewise, jointly with Ferdinand the Catholic king of Spain, ¹⁵⁰¹ he reduced the kingdom of Naples; but soon lost both that and the Milanese.

His successor, Francis I. jealous, not ¹⁵¹⁵ without reason, of the great power of the emperor Charles V. was almost continually at war with him, but to his great loss. Being taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, he was obliged to renounce the paramount jurisdiction over Flanders and Artois, which France had hitherto possessed, and likewise his claim to the Milanese and Naples.

But his son, Henry II. had better success against that emperor, taking from him the three bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and ¹⁵⁵² Verdun. In the fresh war, however, which he entered into against Charles's son, Philip II. king of Spain, he had the worst; yet not ¹⁵⁵⁷ without a considerable advantage to France, the English, who had sided with Spain, losing Calais, the only remainder of all their ¹⁵⁵⁸ former conquests.

Under his three sons, Francis II. Charles IX. and Henry III. who reigned successively after him, France was thrown into terrible convulsions. The principal authors of them were the princes of Lorraine, of

the house of Guise; who, under the pretence of supporting the catholic religion, endeavoured to seize the helm of government, and are said even to have had design on the crown. Eight religious wars (31), the massacre of Paris, and the Holy League, as it was called, were the fruits of their ambition. Henry III. seeing himself reduced to extremities by their turbulence, made use of an extraordinary remedy against the heads of the house of Guise, causing the duke and cardinal to be executed without any judicial process; for which he was murdered by a Dominican monk.

Henry IV. was the next heir to the crown; but his profession of the reformed religion furnished the League with a pretence not to acknowledge him: this objection Henry removed by going over to the Romish church; by which step, and his personal capacity and courage, he at last got secure possession of the

(31) Naude, in his *Considerations Politiques sur les Coups d'Etat*, Ch. III. p. 199, very partially charges the Reformed as the sole authors of these wars and their consequences. His words are, "From the first disturbances raised by the Calvinists to the reign of Henry IV. the pretended Reformed have fought us in five very cruel and bloody battles; been the cause of the death of a million of people; of the taking of 300 towns and cities; of an expence of 150 millions only for the payment of the household troops; and of the burning and destroying of 9 towns, 400 villages, 20,000 churches, 2000 monasteries, and 10,000 houses."

throne;

throne ; and so effectually did he apply himself to restore tranquillity, order, and prosperity, that at his death France might be ¹⁶¹⁰ said to have been in a flourishing condition.

The minority of his son, Lewis XIII. was, as usual, very turbulent ; but after cardinal Richlieu took the helm in hand, ¹⁶²⁴ he disarmed the Huguenots, humbled the great men, and rendered the royal prerogative unlimited. The Thirty Years War in ¹⁶³⁵ Germany gave him a good opportunity of turning the French arms against the house of Austria, and of weakening its excessive power. This was done so effectually, that Lewis XIV. at the peace of Munster, which ¹⁶⁴⁸ put an end to this long war, gained from the emperor, Alsace and Suntgau, together with the three dioceses of Metz, Toul, and Verdun ; and at the treaty of the Pyrenees, Spain ceded to him a great part of the Spanish Netherlands, with the county of ¹⁶⁵⁹ Roussillon.

France was now the first power in Europe, and so secure against all hostile enterprises, that it was entirely in Lewis XIVth's breast to have reigned in peace, and thus procured to his people a lasting enjoyment of the greatest temporal felicity : but pride and ambition, stimulated by bad counsels, urged him to other measures. He was for

acquiring a great name by arms and conquests; so that his long reign became a series of bloody wars, and most of them unjust; in which he took from the crown of Spain another part of the Netherlands and the county of Burgundy, and from the German empire Strasburgh, and the other imperial cities in Alsace, and placed his grandson on the throne of Spain: but on the other hand, he drained his kingdom to the lowest ebb, leaving to his great-grandson Lewis XV. the crown encumbered with a most enormous debt (32).

3715

3735

It has been this prince's good fortune to compass the acquisition of Lorrain, for which France had been so eagerly longing above a century past; and he compassed it by engaging to maintain the pragmatic sanction of the emperor Charles VI. But instead of making good his engagements, he declared himself against the emperor's heirs, which involved him in a war with the empress-queen and Great-Britain; and in which, though the far greater part of the Austrian Netherlands was over-run by the French arms, he at length proved no

3748

(32) The faults in the administration of Lewis XIV. and his unjust wars, the abbe de St. Pierre has pointed out, and censured with the greatest freedom. See his *Annales Politiques*, Part. I. p. 209, 213, 245, 349, &c. Part. II. p. 193.

gainer.

gainer. The disputes between the French and English in North-America, concerning their limits, brought on a fresh war with ¹⁷⁵⁵ Great-Britain; and this produced an alliance between France and Austria. The views on both sides in this connection, and the advantages each promised itself from it, were very great. But the consequences did by no means answer; and France, after a very expensive, and in the whole unfortunate war, both by land and sea, saw itself obliged to purchase peace with the loss of ¹⁷⁶³ the greater part of its North-American possessions.

S E C T. XI.

The inhabitants of France, considered originally, consist of a mixture of several people. The Gauls, the Aborigines, were successively invaded by the Romans, the Burgundians, the Goths, the Bretons, the Franks, and the Normans; so that to this day no small difference of manners and customs is observable in several provinces. For instance, the Normans are reckoned crafty; the Gascons witty and courageous, but withal great boasters (33); the Limo-

The French
a mixture of
several na-
tions.

(33) This character of the Gascons M. Muralt will have to be pretty much the character of the French in general, Lettr. IV. p. 299.

sins dull ; the Parisians (*f*) soft, but withal courteous and friendly (*g*).

S E C T. XII.

Character of
the French.

As to a general description of the French, they are comely and well shaped (34), very active and lively (*b*), with a great share of wit, and a natural disposition and aptitude for all bodily exercises. In affection and obedience to their kings, they exceed all other nations (35). The meanest and poorest Frenchman passionately interests himself in the glory and good fortune of the grand monarch (*i*) ; to please him, and merit his favour, is the highest ambition of all ranks, and the summit of their wishes (*k*). They are naturally sociable, and their sociability is directed by good sense, excluding all restraints and affected gravity from conversation ; but punctual observers of real de-

(*f*) Lettres Persannes, Tom. i. Lettr. XXVIII. p. 67.

(*g*) Muralt Lettres sur les François, Lettr. IV. p. 299, 300.

(34) Nullis mortalibus indoles ad speciem virilis elegansque magis facta. Oris intrepidi habitus motusque atque gestus qui totum corpus decent. "No nation equals them in shape, and aspect, and a graceful carriage." Barclaius in Icon. Animor. Cap. III. p. 368.

(*b*) Muralt, Lettr. I. p. 177.

(35) Toti populo ingens amor & patientia dominantis. Apud illos vere regnatur, nefasque quantum regi liceat dubitare. "They have a great affection and respect for their sovereigns." Barclay, Cap. III. p. 968.

(*i*) Muralt, Lettr. IV. p. 301.

(*k*) Ibid. Lettr. IV. p. 332.

cency.

cency (*l*). Another of their commendable qualities is complaisance and a readiness to oblige, which they practise not only towards relations and acquaintance, but likewise to strangers, whom they treat with great civility, contracting friendship with them as readily as with their countrymen; and shewing themselves not only disinterested, but even generous and noble in their friendship (*m*). The French nobility value honour above every thing; and hence that valour by which they chiefly strive to distinguish themselves from the commonalty (*n*).

But these good qualities are not without great alloy. The complaisance of the French is often overdone (*o*); and that sprightliness and wit, otherwise so taking, seems to be not purely natural (*p*). In the mean time, amidst this excessive fondness for wit, which is, as it were, an epidemical distemper among them (*q*), the understanding is neglected, as of little or no account; the effect of which is, that they

(*l*) Muralt, Lettr. II. p. 201.

(*m*) Ibid. Lettr. II. p. 205.

(*n*) Ibid. Lettr. II. p. 210.

(*o*) Ibid. Lettr. III. p. 250.

(*p*) Ibid. Lettr. I. p. 178.

(*q*) Voyez Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. XXIX. p. 374.

frequently mistake the shadow for the substance, and seek merit in external appearances, and things of no affinity with it (r). And as they account no nation can come in competition with them for wit (s), so they arrogate to themselves the like superiority in qualities really praise-worthy; and especially intrepidity and military courage (36). Thus the success of their arms elevates them beyond measure; and on every fortunate occurrence, Europe rings with their superiority (37).

Courage, that capital virtue of the nobility, was formerly productive of great mischiefs among them by duels; and families

(r) Muralt, Lettr. I. p. 180, & suiv.

(s) Ibid. Lettr. I. p. 195, 196. & suiv. Lettr. IV. pag. 324, &c.

(36) Mr. Mauvillon, author of the celebrated *Lettres Françaises & Germaniques*, goes beyond all writers in zeal for maintaining the courage and military glory of his countrymen; and after making a comparison between them and the Germans, he pronounces that the former are brave, the latter good soldiers; but that the latter could not stand against the former with such a general as the marshal de Belleisle at their head. See Lettr. VII. p. 115, 116, 133, 134, &c.

(37) The French having reduced the island of Minorca in 1756, the abbé Le Blanc, concerning that and other advantages obtained over the English, says, in the preface of his *Letters* (p. x. edit. de 1757), “ Ces fieres insulaires (les Anglois)—ne s'exposeront pas si legerement à insulter le pavillon d'une puissance (la France), qui sur mer, comme sur terre, leur donne aujourd'hui & peut en tout tems leur donner la loi.” i. e. “ These haughty islanders will, for the future, take care how they insult the flag of a power which now gives them law, and can at any time, by sea as well as by land.”

would

would have utterly extirpated each other, had not Lewis XIV. put a severe check to this sanguinary practice (*t*). The affection and respect which the French bear to their sovereign, how commendable soever in itself, yet is censured for its excess, approaching to adoration (38). Persons of the highest rank account his displeasure, and being banished from court, as the very greatest misfortune ; and that freedom which they might enjoy at their seats, becomes an insupportable load and torture (39). Amidst all this submission to their monarchs and the court, in every thing even to matters of taste, and amidst all their humiliations to their superiors, they are eaten up with ambition, and a thirst of command ; purchasing offices and titles, and living higher than they are able ; and all purely to make a greater figure than their equals (40).

(*t*) Muralt, Lettr. IV. p. 319.

(38) Quand on diroit que les François adorent leur roi, ce ne servit peut-être pas trop dire. “ To say that the French adore their kings, perhaps would not be saying too much.” Muralt, Lettr. IV. p. 323.

(39) The count de Bussy Rabutin having been exiled to his seat for some offensive writings, wrote the most abject, and adulatory letters to Lewis XIV. for leave to appear in his presence. Muralt, Lettr. I. p. 190.

(40) Magnitudinem Gallicorum animorum nullibi efficacius videas, quam in ambitu magistratuum.—Exhaurire familias, nomina facere, rem fidemque consumere decorum ; dum inter æquales emineas vel sterili dignitate, vel pretio furtivorum munerum patrimonii ruinam reparante. Nec dubium, quin

But

But their natural levity is still greater, and subjects them in their whole deportment, and particularly in their clothing, to the tyranny of fashion, which is ever varying; and yet is submitted to by almost every European nation as well as the French, except the Spaniards (*u*). All the dark parts of the French character meet in those they call Petit-Mâîtres (*x*), who in their whole demeanor, in their way of thinking, in their talk, and in their dress, affect a ridiculous distinction from other people; and yet all ranks abound with these fantastical creatures (*y*). The fair sex in France, whose morals are so much complained of (*z*), ape every thing criminal and absurd which they see in those and other men (*a*): and once two females of distinction went so far as to fight a duel (*b*).

illa libido titulorum, nisi ipsa se frangat, curias, tribunalia, præfecturas tandem sit viliori sanguine angustisque animis maculatura. Barclajus in Icon. Animor. c. iii. p. 171.

(*u*) Voyez Muralt, Lettr. III. p. 275, 294.

(*x*) For the origin of this name see *Memoires de Mr. de *** pour servir à l'Histoire du XVII. Sicle*, Tom. I. p. 73.

(*y*) Muralt, Lettr. IV. p. 312, 313. *Lettres Françaises & Germaniques*, p. 174, 175. Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. IV. p. 32. & Tom. III. Lettr. XCII. p. 532, & suiv.

(*z*) Voyez Muralt, Lettr. IV. p. 333, & suiv. Le Blanc, Tom. II. Lettr. LXI. p. 441, 442.

(*a*) Le Blanc, Tom. III. Lettr. XCII. p. 536. Muralt, Lettr. II. p. 336, 337.

(*b*) See Ludolf's *Schaubuhne der Welt*, i. e. *Theatre of the World*, a German work, P. IV. p. 258.

S E C T. XIII.

Under the dominion of the Romans in ^{Language.} Gaul, their language became so general, as totally to explode the Celtic, which was spoken by the inhabitants (c). The Franks introduced the German, which appears to have continued some time (41) among them, and to have been the court language under the Merovingian and Carlovingian princes (d). The mixture of the languages of the Franks and other nations, who came and settled in Gaul with the Romans, produced a dialect quite new, with a corrupt Latin for its ground. This at first was very rugged and irregular, but by degrees became polished and improved, especially since the time of Francis I. who, in the year 1539, prohibited the use of Latin in the law courts, which till then had been a constant practice (e). At last the academy instituted by cardinal Richlieu, under Lewis XIII. and Lewis XIV. brought the language

(c) Vid. Francisci Hotomani Franco-Gallia, Cap. II. p. 14, 15.

(41) Extat Canon. Concilii Turonensis, sub Carolo Magno: Ut Episcopus Homilias aperte transferre studeat in Rusticam Romanam linguam aut Theotiscam, quo facilius possint cuncti intelligere. Lipsius Cent III. ad Belgas Epist. 44. in Operibus Tom. II. p. 1002.

(d) Disquisition when the French court ceased to be German. Hamburgh Magazine, Numb. X. p. 429.

(e) Henault, Tom. I. p. 450.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

to that regularity, energy, and elegance (42), by which it gained such vogue, that at present it may be looked on as the general language of Europe (43).

S E C T. XIV.

Number of
inhabitants.

France, in comparison of other European countries, is very populous. Its inhabitants in the year 1621 are said to have amounted to twenty-five millions, and in 1733 to twenty-two (*f*); whereas in other years, they did not exceed nineteen millions (44). At present some compute them at twenty, others at eighteen (*g*), and others again at only seventeen millions (*b*). This population is to be attributed to the na-

(42) Abbé Bignon terms it a language, qui fait paroître toute autre langue barbare. Voyez. Piganiol. de La Force, Tom. I. Ch. I. p. 9.

(43) La langue Françoisse est devenue, pour ainsi dire, la langue de l'Europe, & semble destinée à la gloire de succéder au Latin. Elle est déjà celle des Negociations & des Traitez. Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. XXXII. p. 436.

(*f*) See Mr. Wernich's State of France, a German work, p. 128.

(44) Marshal Vauban, after the treaty of Nimeguen, reckoned the inhabitants of France at nineteen millions four hundred and ninety thousand. *Projet d'une Dixieme Royale*, p. 20. M. De Real about the year 1750 likewise reckoned them about nineteen millions. See his *Science du Gouvernement*, P. I. Tom. II. p. 18. It is remarkable that both these calculations were made after two great wars, by which the number of people must necessarily have been very much diminished.

(*g*) Wernich, p. 128.

(*b*) See Mr. Susmilch, Vol. II. p. 184.

tional industry, and to the many manufactures and fabrics, by which great multitudes subsist. The obstructions to a still greater encrease, or, rather, which occasion a gradual decrease, are the great number of ecclesiastics and convents, religious oppressions, and consequent emigrations; frequent wars, heavy taxes, with the encrease of navigation and colonies in other parts of the world (i).

S E C T. XV.

The French politicians divide the nobility into four classes. The first consists of the princes of the blood, the second of the upper nobility, the third of the common ancient nobility, and the fourth of the new (k). French nobility.

The princes of the blood are those princes of the royal family, who have a right to the succession (45). Next in rank to these are such of the king's natural sons who have been declared legitimate (l). Then

(i) See Mr. Sufmilch, Vol. II. p. 185.

(k) De La Force, Tom. I. Ch. XX. Art. I. p. 390.

(45) The first prince of the blood is the next immediate successor to the royal children, and has some particular privileges. De La Force, Tom I. Ch. XX. Art. I. p. 391.

(l) De La Force, p. 391, 392.

come the foreign princes (46), as they are called, of whom there are present five families; 1. Lorrain. 2. De La Tour, or Bouillon. 3. Rohan and Soubise. 4. Monaco (47); and 5. La Trimouille.

At the head of the upper nobility are the dukes and peers of France (48). Next to

(46) So called, either as being descended from families of foreign princes, or having an equal rank with them. *Etat de la France*, Tom. II. Ch. VIII. p. 98. They are stiled *Altesse*, *Highness*, besides enjoying some other privileges above the dukes and peers of France. *Etat de la France*, p. 97, 122.

(47) This is a principality of Italy, which belonged to the house of Grimaldi; but on the failure of its male line, Monaco came by marriage to the French family of Guyon-Matignon. *Science du Gouvernem. par Mr. De Real*, Part I. Tom. II. p. 21, 22.

(48) Very different, however, from these are the twelve ancient peers; among whom there are six ecclesiastics, namely, three spiritual dukes, the archbishop of Rheims, and the bishops of Laon and Langres; and three spiritual counts, the bishops of Beauvais, Chalons, and Noyon. In 1674 the archbishop of Paris was likewise raised to the peerage by the title of duke of St. Cloud. *De La Force*, Tom. II. p. 234. The six temporal peers were the dukes of Burgundy, Normandy, and Guienne, and the counts of Champagne, Flanders, and Toulouse. The origin of the twelve ancient peers is very uncertain. Some, which however is a manifest error, deduce it from Charles the Great, others from Hugh Capet, and others again from Lewis VII. *Velly Hist. de France*, Tom. II. p. 291, 292. Tom. III. p. 203. And *Mr. De Real, Science du Gouvern. P. I. Tom. II. p. 35, 36*. Their peculiar privilege was to assist at the coronation of the kings; and on this account the six ancient temporal peers being long since extinct, are at that solemnity always represented by the princes of the blood, or new peers. Philip IV. and the succeeding kings created many new peerages, but generally only for princes of the blood, till Francis I. conferred that honour on the duke of Guise and the constable de Montmorency. Several of the French nobility were after-

these

to these come the other dukes, who are not peers; and after these follow marquises, counts, viscounts, and barons. The rank of upper noblesse is also annexed to the great offices of state, and to some of the court employments, as likewise to the order of the Holy Ghost.

The common nobility are divided into nobles by descent and nobles by birth (*Noblesse de Race & Noblesse de Naissance*); the former being such whose ancestors were always accounted noble (49), and the latter whose ancestors were created nobles.

The new nobility consist of those to whom the king has either given a patent (50), or advanced to posts which confer nobility; such as the high offices of the crown; that of secretary of state, a

afterwards promoted to this honour; so that the peers, exclusive of the six ecclesiastics, amounted to forty-two. *De Real, P. I. Tom. II. p. 36.* For the privileges and the oath of these new peers, see that author, p. 39. They rank according to the time of their admittance into the parliament of Paris, and taking the oath usual on that occasion. By an edict of Lewis XIV. 1711, all princes of the blood, though they have no peerage, are peers by birth. *De Real, p. 39, & suiv.*

(49) Nobility by descent is grounded on long possession; which by the royal ordinance of 1664 and 1714, is fixed at one hundred years. *De La Force, Tom. I. Ch. xx. p. 397.*

(50) The first patent of nobility Raoul the goldsmith obtained from king Philip III. *Henault's New Chronological Abridgment, Tom. I. p. 238.*

counsellor in the parliament of Paris, and the other high courts of justice in that city (51). This kind of nobility becomes hereditary, after holding such an employment twenty years, or if on the death of the father, the son obtains the employment; whereas the nobility annexed to the same offices in the other parliaments and high courts of justice in the kingdom, is only *durante vitâ*: however, it may become hereditary, by the father and grand-father having had the employment in immediate succession, and during the space of twenty years (o). Counsellors in some of the cities are likewise created nobles by the king's patent. But this nobility is of no great repute (52).

(51) It is but lately that nobility has been annexed to these employments. Formerly it was otherwise. Under king John, not so much as the chancellorship conferred nobility, much less the inferior law employments. De La Force, Tom. I. Ch. xx. p. 399, 400. But any one having a noble fief, or a military employment, and continuing in it, was ennobled: this custom, however, was abolished by edicts of Henry III. and Henry IV. Henault, Tom. II. p. 574. The principal military officers, as a lieutenant-general and a colonel of horse, if not noble, were obliged to be ennobled. Annal. Polit. de St. Pierre, P. I. p. 34. But by an edict of Lewis XV. in 1750, not only these, but much lower military employments, confer nobility. Henault's Chronol. Abridgment, Tom. II. p. 574. New Genealogical Historical Accounts, a German work, Tom. X. p. 915.

(o) De La Force, Tom. I. Ch. xx. p. 398, 399.

(52) Charles V. conferred nobility on all the citizens of Paris in general; and this grant was confirmed by Charles

In

In France, nobility is forfeited by trade (from which, however, Lewis XIV. excepted maritime commerce), farming, handicrafts, and some vulgar employments.

The nobility in Brittany, on engaging in trade, let their nobility lie dormant; and, on retiring from trade, may resume it with all its privileges.

The nobility are exempt from personal taxes and the quartering of soldiers, besides some other occasional privileges (*p*); which having given rise to many false pretensions to nobility, a severe edict was issued in the year 1660 against such delinquents (53).

The noble families in France are reckoned at 50,000, which, computing five persons in each family, makes at least the eightieth part of the nation (*q*).

VI. Lewis XI. Francis I. and Henry II. But in 1577, Henry III. limited it to the *Prevôt des Marchands* and the *Echevins*, or mayor and court of aldermen. Lewis XIV. repealed it in 1667, and in 1707 restored it. In 1715 it was again abolished, and restored a second time in 1716. He-nault, Tom. I. p. 318.

(*p*) Ibid. p. 401, 402.

(53) France had formerly a chief-herald's office, which consisted of several kings at arms and heralds. They kept a register of the names, surnames, and arms, of the upper and lower nobility in each province; and every three years held a meeting, when they delivered their particular registers to the first king at arms, who caused them to be digested into a general register of nobility; which rendered it impracticable for one who was not really a nobleman, to pass for such. Villaret, Tom. XI. p. 90, 91.

(*q*) Annal. Polit. de St. Pierre, Part. I. p. 30.

S E C T. XVI.

Form of
government.

States of the
kingdom.

The prerogative of the kings of France, instead of being unlimited, as at present, was anciently under restraints from the states of the kingdom. These, under the Merovingian kings, assembled annually in the month of March; and their assemblies were called *Campus Martii*: afterwards, when, for the greater conveniency, they were altered to the month of May, the appellation was also changed to *Campus Maii*. In these assemblies, where the king with his great officers and the nobility assisted, peace and war, and all affairs of government, were discussed, and resolutions taken by a majority of votes (*r*). In the diet held at Soissons in the month of May 750, where Childeric was deposed, and Pepin elected king, it is observed, that the clergy were present for the first time (54). And thus the states of the kingdom under the

(*r*) Vid. Francisci Hotomani *Franco-Gallia*, Cap. xiv. Velly, dans l'*Hist. de France*, Tom. I. p. 47, 48. & Tom. VII. p. 194.

(54) So says Boulainvilliers (*Abregé Chronol. de l'Hist. de France*, p. 95, 96.), and Velly (Tom. VII. p. 195.) It appears however, that the clergy assisted at the diets before this time; and Boulainvilliers himself in another place (*Hist. de l'anc. Gouvern.* Tom. I. p. 216, 217.) relates, that in the diets under the last Merovingian kings, the clergy made the greater part.

Carlovingian princes, consisted of the nobility and the clergy, and their session was called the Parliament. This constitution continued under the government of the Capetians till king Philip IV. who, to secure the approbation of the whole people, in the warm contests between him and pope Boniface VIII. also summoned the cities to the diet (55); which now was called *Assemblée des Etats Generaux*. The name of Parliament was given to the court of justice which king Philip IV. instituted at Paris, appointing its perpetual residence in that city (s). But the national states at this time were far from having their ancient weight and consideration; nothing of peace and war came under their cognizance: their chief business was to represent the grievances of the people, consent to taxes, and direct the manner of levying them; and settle the regency, when omitted by the deceased king (t). These remaining privileges, however, they sometimes asserted with great firmness, entering into associations against

(55) Under the name of the third state (*Tiers Etat*). Boulainvilliers, *Hist. de l'anc. Gouvern.* Tom. II. p. 55, 65, & suiv. But it is probable that the cities were sometimes summoned to the diets by Lewis IX. See Boulainvilliers, Tom. II. p. 20, 21, 64. & Henault, Tom. I. p. 228.

(s) Boulainvilliers, *l'Histoire de l'ancien Gouvernement de la France*, Tom. II. p. 55, 56. Velly, Tom. III. p. 72.

(t) Velly, Tom. III. p. 72.

the kings (*u*), and obliging them to correct the abuses in government (*x*). But Lewis XI. at length, by force and artifice, brought the assembly of the states to a total dependency on his will; so that they became a mere farce (*y*). If ever they were summoned under the following reigns, it was only for mere form; and in the year 1614 was held the last general diet in France (*z*). That king, and Lewis XIV. still more, would not allow the nation to have any rights and privileges (56), but governed with an arbitrary authority; which has since remained undisputed, and without any abatement (57).

(*u*) Boulainvilliers, dans l'Hist. de l'anc. Gouvern. Tom. II. p. 93, 153.

(*x*) Ibid. Tom. II. p. 98. & suiv. & p. 212, 213, &c.

(*y*) Ibid. Tom. III. p. 216, 217.

(*z*) Henault, Tom. II. p. 592.

(56) Lewis XIII. when any one took the liberty of mentioning some established rights and privileges, would stop his ears with both his hands, and call out as loud as he could, What was a privilege against his will? Lewis XIV. has swept them all away, not leaving so much as one. Boulainvilliers in his History of the ancient Government, Tom. III. p. 198, 199.

(57) Le gouvernement a degeneré dans les derniers tems à un despotisme si outré, que toute la fortune (de la nation François) est devenue la proie du pouvoir arbitraire, lequel l'a si fort avilie qu'il seroit très difficile d'y trouver un seul François digne du nom de ses peres. Boulainvilliers, Tom. I. p. 66. i. e. "The government, of late, is degenerated into such an extreme despotism, that the whole fortune of the French nation is become a prey to arbitrary power; which has so debased it, that scarce a Frenchman is to be met with,

Amidst

Amidst the religious disputes in the year 1751, forty counsellors of the parliament of Paris, delivered in a formal declaration, signed by their president (Batonnier); in which, among other things, they affirm, that the kingdom of France is a state purely monarchical; that the supreme power is lodged in the king alone; that the king is in the place of God himself, as his living representative; and that the obedience due to him, is a matter of religion and conscience (a).

who deserves to be called by the name of his ancestors." None of his countrymen have written so freely on the form of the French government; and he has clearly proved that the power of the prerogative of the kings was formerly limited. But the most recent French writers, from fear, or flattery, peremptorily oppose that truth, and will not allow the French ever to have been a free people. Mr. De Real, *Science du Gouvernement*. Part I. Tom. II. p. 31, has these words: *Le gouvernement de France est purement monarchique aujourd'hui comme il le fut au commencement. Nos rois furent absolus dès lors, ainsi qu'ils le sont à présent.—Les anciennes assemblées générales qu'on appelloit parlemens—n'eurent jamais que voix consultative. Les états-généraux qui succédoient dans le commencement du quatorzième siècle à cet ancien conseil de la nation—n'agirent jamais avec la couronne que par la voye des très humbles remontrances.* i. e. "The government of France is purely monarchical, at present, as it was in the beginning. Our kings in those times were absolute, as they are in our days. The old general meetings, called parliaments, never had any thing beyond a consulting vote. The states-general, who at the beginning of the 14th century, succeeded that ancient council of the nation, never treated with the crown, but in the way of most humble representations."

(a) See this declaration in M. de Real's *Science du Gouvernement*, Part I. Tom. II. p. 32, 33.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

Thus are the states of the kingdom absolutely excluded from all concerns of government, retaining no more than the right of chusing a king on a total failure of the royal male line (58), and the deciding of a contested succession (59). To this some add, that of appointing a regency in certain cases (60).

(58) Lewis XIV. so far from acknowledging this right of the states, openly contravened it in two instances. First, when in 1662, he made a treaty with Charles IV. duke of Lorrain, admitting the princes of the house of Lorrain among the princes of the blood, and investing them with a right of succeeding to the throne of France. The second was in 1714, when he declared his natural sons, the duke du Maine and the count Toulouse, capable of inheriting the crown. Henault, *New Chronol. Abr.* Tom. II. p. 724, 879. and St. Pierre, *Annal. Polit.* Part II. p. 103. But Lewis XV. in an edict of 1717, has expressly acknowledged this elective right. See the edict in the *Supplement de M. Rouffet du Corps Dipl. de Mr. Du Mont*, Tom. II. Part I. p. 165.

(59) The French peers and barons made use of this right on the decease of Charles IV. in the dispute between Philip de Valois and Edward III. of England, Mezeray in his *Chronological Abridgment*. But the count de Boulainvilliers observes, that the verdict of the peers and barons related only to the regency, and not the succession to the throne; and that Philip, looking on the latter as a consequence of the former, took possession of the throne without any farther decision.

(60) Instances are not wanting of this being sometimes done by the states of the kingdom. When Francis I. was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia in 1525, his mother, Louisa of Savoy, caused the regency, which he had conferred on her before his Italian expedition, to be confirmed by the states of the kingdom; the parliament of Paris being inclined to confer it on the next prince of the blood, Charles of Bourbon, duke of Vendome. Mezeray, *Chronological Abridgment*, Tom. II. p. 870. On the decease of king Francis II. the states of the kingdom settled the guardianship

Besides

Besides the general assemblies of the states, the heads of the clergy, of the upper nobility, and of the parliaments, were convened; and these conventions were distinguished by the appellation of *Assemblée des Notables* (61).

Though general diets have been laid aside, yet are diets held at certain times in Burgundy, Brittany, Languedoc, Provence, Lower Navarre, and Artois: but all the business of these assemblies is to regulate the assessments for the taxes demanded by the king (6).

S E C T. XVII.

Remains of the old French constitution are still to be found in some privileges belonging to the parliament of Paris: all the royal ordinances, edicts, declarations,

Remains of the ancient constitution in the parliament of Paris.

of the young king Charles IX. and the regency of the kingdom, on the queen-mother, Catharine de Medicis, instead of Antony king of Navarre, who claimed it as the first prince of the blood. De La Force, Tom. I. Chap. XVI. Art. I. p. 201. But it is much to be questioned, whether, in any such case for the future, the states of the kingdom would be able to make good their right, the parliament of Paris having of late got possession of it.

(61) *Assemblées des Notables* were held so lately as 1617 at Roan, and in 1626 at Paris. Bartholom. Gramondi, Hist. Gall. Lib. III. p. 181, 199. & Lib. XVI. p. 173. Henault, New Chronological Abridgment, Tom. II. p. 595, 608.

(6) Pigan. De La Force, Tom. I. Ch. xviii. Art. 2. §. 5. p. 361.

and

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

and letters-patent, are to be registered there, and till thus registered are not valid : and the parliament has a right to offer representations against such acts, when it judges them detrimental to the nation (62). Thus the parliament of Paris is an assembly of great weight and dignity, being considered as the guardian of the laws of the kingdom, and the people's rights.

The other parliaments have likewise a share in this honour ; for as ordinances and edicts relating to particular provinces must be registered in their respective parliaments, so have they likewise a right of remonstrating against them in behalf of the people.

When the king would have some very important ordinances registered, he goes in person to the parliament, attended by the princes of the blood, the peers of France, and the principal officers of state, and those of the court ; and then he is said to hold his *Lit de Justice* (63). This is always

(62) Lewis XIV. took away this privilege from the parliaments by edicts in 1667 and 1673. But during the minority of Lewis XV. the duke of Orleans being regent, procured it to be restored to them by a royal declaration of the 15th of September 1715. *Memoires de la Regence du Duc d'Orleans durant la Minorité de Louis XV.* Tom. I. p. 12. *Du Mont Corps Univers. Diplom.* Tom. VIII. C. i. p. 457.

(63) The parliament sometimes decline registering the royal ordinances, and then the king sends them orders for

done,

done, and with the most splendid solemnity, at the king's being declared of age (c).

Though the parliament of Paris, according to the court maxims, are to mind only the administration of justice, and not presume to take cognizance of state affairs, yet they sometimes act otherwise; and particularly in the time of a minority, when it has declared even the wills of kings invalid in their most important articles (64).

S E C T. XVIII.

Though the French civilians hold France to be an unlimited monarchy, yet has it some fundamental laws, which the king of his own prerogative cannot alter. 1. That he shall profess and defend the Roman Catholic religion (65). 2. That he shall not

Fundamental laws.

their compliance by his *Lettres de Jussion*, or he holds a *Lit de Justice*, and sees them registered.

(c) De La Force, Tom. I. Ch. ii. Art. 5. p. 29, 33.

(64) Such was the reception which the wills of Lewis XIII. and Lewis XIV. met with, relative to the guardianship and regency.

(65) The king swears at his coronation, *De terrâ meâ ac jurisdictione mihi subditâ universâ hæreticos ab ecclesiâ denotatos pro viribus bonâ fide exterminare studebo.* Ceremonial de France, Livr. II. Ch. ii. dans le Ceremonial Diplomat. de Mr. Roussel, Tom. I. p. 199. "I will truly endeavour to the utmost of my power to root out of my country and dominion all such as the church adjudges to be heretics."

divide

divide or dismember the kingdom (66), nor alienate any of the demesne or property of the crown (*d*). And 3. That he shall not alter the established succession to the throne (67).

S E C T. XIX.

Succession
to the
throne.

The succession to the throne is so far hereditary in the male line, that by the right of primogeniture, it devolves first to the direct line, and on its failure, to the collateral lines, excluding the younger (*e*).

(66) The monarchy was extremely rent by the many partitions under the Merovingian and Carolingian kings. But the Capetians established the indivisibility of it, by which, whatever the kings acquired or were possessed of before their accession, should be united to the crown; and this was ratified by an ordinance in 1666. Henault, Tom. II. p. 899. *Science du Gouvernement*. par Mr. De Real, Part I. Tom. II. p. 63, 69, & suiv.

(*d*) See Henault, Tom. I. p. 244, 245, 298. & Tom. II. p. 398, & foll.

(67) In the edict of the 2d of July 1717, for revoking the right to the succession, conferred by Lewis XIV. on his natural sons the duke du Maine and the count de Toulouse, Lewis XV. says, Puisque les loix fondamentales de notre royaume nous mettent dans une heureuse impuissance d'aliéner le domaine de notre couronne, nous faisons gloire de reconnoître qu'il nous est encore moins libre de disposer de notre couronne même. Voyez *Memoires de la Regence du duc d'Orléans*, Tom. I. p. 352. "As the fundamental laws of our kingdom happily put it out of our power to alienate our crown-lands, so we glory in acknowledging that we are still less at liberty to dispose of our crown."

(*e*) Vid. Francisc. Hotoman. de Jure Successionis Regiæ in Regno Francorum, p. 7, 38, & seq. De Real, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 44, 45.

In this order it constantly proceeds (68); and this disposition is held so fixed and unalterable, that the French maintain the next prince of the blood to be a necessary heir to the crown, and incapable of being deprived of it even by a renunciation (69): and that were the whole royal family so far extinct as only one single prince to be remaining, he, though a thousand degrees remote from the last deceased king, must inherit the crown by virtue of lineage and constant custom (70). Thus, the daughters, and all female descendants, are abso-

(68) Non igitur gradus aut aetas ullam in hac causâ prae-rogativam tribuit, sed stirps & linea. Hotoman. l. c. p. 47.

(69) When in the negotiations between France and Great-Britain, which preceded the treaty of Utrecht, it was required that Philip V. king of Spain, should renounce the crown of France, the French court signified to the British, *Que la renonciation demandée seroit nulle & invalide suivant les loix fondamentales du royaume, selon lesquelles le Prince qui est le plus proche de la couronne; en est heritier de toute nécessité.* "That the renunciation required, would be null and void by the fundamental laws of the kingdom, according to which the prince who is nearest the crown, is of indispensable necessity, heir to it." *Memoires de Torcy, Tom. III. p. 180.* And the consequence has shewn that Philip V. would not be bound by that renunciation. *Memoires de Montgon, Tom. II. p. 452, 491. Tom. III. p. 70.*

(70) Hotoman. l. c. p. 41. and Mezeray, *Tom. III. p. 1211*, say, concerning Henry the fourth's right to the crown; "Though there had not been any instance in France of a prince of so distant a degree as king Henry of Navarre was from king Henry III. to whom he was related only in the eleventh degree, both the people and lawyers were of opinion, that this succession in the male line extended in infinitum.

lutely

lutely excluded from the succession (71) ; and the natural sons of the kings by a new

(71) And this by virtue of the Salic law, to which the French nation have appealed, in several cases, when females claimed the crown. For when, on the demise of Lewis X. some of the great men were for making his daughter Joanna queen, the states of the kingdom adjudged the crown to his brother Philip, the Salic laws not allowing the princesses to inherit. Henault's New Chronol. Abridg. Tom. I. p. 270. And this is the place where, adds the author, the Salic law is first mentioned in the history of France. In the contest between Philip VI. and Edward III. king of England, the peers and barons again voted for the former, in conformity to the Salic law. Mézeray, Tom. II. p. 529. Mr. De Real, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 53. When the duke of Mayenne and the League in the year 1593 were for proceeding to the election of a king, the parliament of Paris passed a remarkable resolution on the 28th of June, in which, among other things, it is said ; *La cour toutes les chambres assemblées a déclaré & declare tous traités faits & qui se feront cy-après pour l'établissement d'un prince ou princesse étrangere nuls & de nul effet & valeur, comme fait au prejudice de la loi Salique.* Supplem. au Corps Univerf. Diplom. par Mr. Rouffet, Tom. II. Part. I. n. xc. p. 222. "The court, in a full assembly of all the chambers, has declared, and does declare, that all treaties made, or which shall hereafter be made, for the establishment of a foreign prince or princess, to be void, and of no force and effect, as contrary to the Salic law." The text of the Salic law, tit. LXII. §. 6. de Alode. (in Petr. Georgisch. Corp. Jur. Germ. Ant. Col. 124.) speaks thus ; *De terrâ Salicâ nulla portio hereditatis mulieri veniat : sed ad virilem sexum tota terrae hereditas perveniat.* "No part of the inheritance in the Salic country is to go to the woman, the whole is to belong to the male sex." Does not this manifestly treat of the succession to the throne ? And accordingly, the French civilians by the Salic law mean no more than an unwritten law or custom. See Mr. De Real, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 45, 54, 56, 61. Philip, duke of Orleans, regent of France, employed, from private views, father Poisson, a Franciscan friar, to compose a work on the ancient constitution of the French monarchy, where the author produces a very particular cause why the Salic law was brought on the carpet. *Memoires de Montgon*, Tom. IV. p. 33. Father Poisson's book was never printed, but affords some remarkable anecdotes.

law,

law, are declared incapable (72). The advantages of the succession in the male line, as established in France, are chiefly, that the heir to the crown is always fixed and certain; that the crown can never go out of the royal family, nor the kingdom come into the hands of a foreign line; which is an unavoidable consequence of the succession being mixed,

S E C T. XX.

France has frequently had minor kings in the Capetian line (73). The majority under the Merovingians began at the age of fifteen; under the Carlovingians, it was deferred till he had reached twenty-one years of age (74). This custom continued under the Capetian line, though not always punctually observed; for, according to the difference of circumstances, some kings took the reins of government in hand sooner,

King's majority.

(72) Lewis XIV. by an edict of 1714, declared his natural sons, the duke du Maine and the count de Toulouse, capable of the crown, after the decease of all the princes of the blood: but, on his demise, the council of regency, on a complaint preferred against such a grant by the duke of Bourbon and other princes of the blood, thought fit to set it aside by another edict of 1717. *Mem. de la Regence du duc d'Orleans*, Tom. I. p. 241, 255, 346.

(73) Philip I. Philip II. Lewis IX. Charles VI. Charles IX. Lewis XIII. XIV. XV.

(74) The causes of this difference are related by Villaret, Tom. X. p. 313.

and

and others later (75). Charles V. at length in 1374, by a perpetual edict, settled the majority (76) at the king's entrance on his fourteenth year (77); and Charles VI. in 1392, passed a solemn ratification of it (*f*): accordingly it has ever since been accounted one of the fundamental laws.

S E C T. XXI.

Guardian-
ship and re-
gency.

The minority of the king, with other causes which do not admit of his ruling immediately by himself, render the guardianship and regency necessary; and the appointment of them has always depended on the royal pleasure. The regency was at first separated from the guardianship (*g*), but of late they have been united, and ge-

(75) Philip I. at his accession to the government was fifteen years of age. Velly, Tom. II. p. 399. Lewis IX. did not assume the sovereignty till the end of his twentieth year. Boulainvilliers, Abregé Chronol. Tom. II. p. 149.

(76) This edict, issued in August 1374 at Bois de Vincennes, was solemnly notified in the parliament of Paris at a Lit de Justice on the 20th of May 1375. It is to be found in Leibnitz Cod. Jur. Gent. Diplom. p. 231, & seqq. and in Du Mont, Corps. Diplom. Tom. II. P. I. p. 95.

(77) This was the explanation of the words of this law, otherwise something ambiguous, given by the chancellor de L'Hopital, on occasion of the majority of Charles IX. Villaret, Tom. X. p. 312.

(*f*) Villaret, Hist. de France, Tom. XII. p. 141, 142.

(*g*) Henault, New Chronolog. Abridgment, Tom. I. p. 320. Villaret, Tom. X. p. 317, 318, 320, 321.

nerally held by the queen-mother (78). This custom is something singular, that though females are excluded from the succession to the throne, yet is the regency lodged in their hands, not only during a minority, but in other cases (*b*); there being several instances of kings, who, on foreign expeditions, have committed the regency to their consorts or mothers (79).

When no disposition had been made concerning the guardianship or regency, or any dispute arose, the states of the kingdom determined the issue (80). But the parlia-

(78) Queen Blanche was guardian and regent during the minority of Lewis IX. Catherine de Medicis in that of Charles IX. Mary de Medicis in that of Lewis XIII. and Ann of Austria in that of Lewis XIV.

(*b*) De Real, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 54.

(79) Philip II. undertaking a croisade to Palestine in the year 1190, conferred the regency on his mother Alicia, as Francis I. at his expedition to Italy in 1524, on his mother Louisa, of Savoy; and as Lewis XIII. in his Italian expedition in the year 1629, likewise did on his mother Mary of Medicis; and Lewis XIV. in the campaign of 1672, against the United Netherlands, appointed his queen, Maria Teresa, regent. Mezeray, Tom. I. p. 390. Tom. II. p. 865. Gramond, Lib. XVIII. p. 787. De La Force, Tom. I. Ch. xvi. Art. 1. p. 203.

(80) Lewis XI. made his daughter, Ann de Beaujeu, guardian of his son and successor, Charles VIII. though he was of age, without mentioning the regency; but Lewis, duke of Orleans, and John, duke of Bourbon, as nearest princes of the blood, maintained that the king, on account of the weak state of his health, and the neglect of his education, was to be looked on as a minor, and claimed the regency. The affair was referred to the states of the kingdom, who thereupon settled both the regency and the guardianship.

ment of Paris has since possessed itself of this privilege (81); nay, it has sometimes made regulations concerning the regency, which were directly contrary to the king's last will (82). Frequent precedents, however, shew it to have been customary for the guardianship and regency to be lodged with the mother of the minor king; and on the want of a queen-mother, they devolved on the nearest prince of the blood (83). The abbé de St. Pierre holds it to be a defect in the French politics, that this article is not settled by any fundamental law (i).

Mezeray, Tom. II. p. 755. Two other instances occur in §. 16. and (7).

(81) On the death of Henry IV. the parliament, though not without some compulsion, made his widow, Mary de Medicis, regent. *Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire Universelle de l'Europe*, par le P. D. Avrigny, Tom. I. p. 110, 111. The author hereupon makes the following observation; C'est la premiere fois que le parlement ait deferé la regence du royaume, & il s'est maintenu depuis dans cette possession. "This is the first time that the parliament had conferred the regency of the kingdom, and it has retained that prerogative ever since.

(82) Lewis XIII. appointed his consort, Ann of Austria, regent, but with a very limited power; and by the will of Lewis XIV. the duke of Orleans was only to be head of the council of regency; but the parliament voted that the regency both of the queen and the duke should be unlimited. *Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV.* Tom. I. ch. ii. p. 46. *Mem. de la Regence du duc d'Orleans*, Tom. I. p. 10.

(83) Philip, duke of Orleans, asserted, contrary to the will of Lewis XIV. that his birth entitled him to the regency. *Memoires de la Regence du duc d'Orleans*, Tom. I. p. 8, 9.

(i) *Annal. Polit. Part. II. p. 257.*

During

During the regency, all royal ordinances, mandates, commissions, and letters, run in the king's name (84).

S E C T. XXII.

The king's title is very short and plain, ^{The king's title.} for he styles himself only King of France and Navarre (85); though in such royal ordinances and mandates as are sent to the provinces, which formerly were independent of the crown, as Dauphiné and Provence, the respective titles of such provinces are added (86).

By foreigners he is styled, The most Christian King, and his Most Christian Majesty (87); but his subjects (*k*), speaking of

(84) All state instruments were formerly made out in the name of the regents and their particular seal; but since the time of Francis I. this has been altered. Villaret, Tom. X. p. 315. Henault, Tom. I. p. 328.

(85) Henry IV. who inherited Lower Navarre, and had a claim to Upper Navarre, in right of his mother Joanna d'Albret, added the last title to the former; and though afterwards Lower Navarre became annexed to the crown, it has been constantly used by his successors. De Real, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 74, 75.

(86) The king accordingly in such instruments, styles himself Dauphin de Viennois, Comte de Valentinois & de Diois; Comte de Provence, de Forcalquier & terres adjacentes, Sire de Mouzen. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 6. p. 41.

(87) This title of the kings of France is of very ancient date. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 6. p. 35. But it appears not to have been used in instruments till the kings of Spain bore that of Catholic king. Becman, Dissert. 2. ch. ii §. 3.

(*k*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. iii. art. 6. p. 36.

him in the third person, say only, *Le Roy*; and in the second, they address him by the word *Sire* (*l*). The pope, in his bulls and briefs, gives him likewise the title of First-born Son of the Church (*m*). In treaties with the grand signor, and other princes and states of Asia and Africa, and in his letters to them, he styles himself Emperor of France; and they likewise give him that title (88).

S E C T. XXIII.

Arms.

The French arms are as plain as the king's title, consisting of two united shields. In the right, Jupiter, are three flower de luces, Sol, for France (89). The left, Mars, con-

(*l*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 6. p. 34, 36.

(*m*) Becman's Synt. Dignit. Dissert. II. cap. ii. §. 6. De La Force, p. 36.

(88) Of this instances are to be seen in *Corps Univers. Diplomat. de Mr. Du Mont*, Tom. V. Part. II. p. 39, 559. Tom. VI. Part. I. p. 19. Tom. VII. Part. I. p. 231. 397. Part. II. p. 18, 74, 75, 105, 114. and the dissertation on the imperial title of the kings of France in the *Gazette of Mecklenburgh-Schwerin* 1763, n. 43, 44, 45.

(89) Chiffetius in *Anastasi Childerici*, cap. xii. p. 171, & seqq. is of opinion, that the arms of France at first were bees, which imagination has since transformed into lillies. Though this be little probable, yet it is certain that Lewis VII. was the first who used a lilly for his arms. His successors had an indefinite number; but under Charles V. all the king's seals had three engraven on them, to indicate, as is thought, that king's devotion to the sacred Trinity. Yet this number did not continue fixed, till under Charles VI. Velly, Tom. II. p. 470, 471. Villaret, Tom. XI. p. 110, 114, 115. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 9. p. 47.

tains

tains links of a chain, Sol, parted into orbs, pales, fesses, counterbands, or saltiers, with a quadrangular carbuncle in the centre, for the kingdom of Navarre (90). The two shields are surrounded with an open helmet, crowned, the mantle, Sol and Jupiter. Round the shield of France are the collars of the orders of St. Michael and the Holy Ghost. The supporters are two angels (91), habited as Levites, each holding a banner, one with the French arms, and the other with those of Navarre. The whole under a pavillion; without, Jupiter, and flower de luce semé, and lined with ermin. Over it is the royal crown, behind which appears the standard called Oriflamme (92); at the

(90) These arms were first used by king Sancho VII. in commemoration of the great victory obtained over the Moors in the year 1212, in conjunction with the kings of Castile and Arragon. Mariana, Lib. XI. c. 24.

(91) Some kings, however, have used other supporters, as Charles VI. two winged stags; Lewis XII. two porcupines; and Francis I. two salamanders. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 6. p. 48.

(92) This standard, formerly so famous, belongs to the abbey of St. Denis, the monks of which used to carry it in their religious expeditions, and in the wars against those who invaded the lands of their churches. When it was to go into the field, the counts of Vexin, as patrons of the abbey, fetched it from the altar with great solemnity. The county of Vexin being united to the crown under Philip I. the king succeeded to that honour; and Lewis VI. first made use of it in his marching against the emperor Henry V. Velly, Tom. III. p. 41. It was likewise carried in the French army in the celebrated battle of Bouvines 1214. According to the

head of which is a flying label, with these words : " Mont-Joye Saint Denis (93)."

S E C T. XXIV.

Pre-eminence of the kings of France.

The advantages and pre-eminencies of the kingdom of France, in the account of some eminent writers of that nation, are such, that they term it the first kingdom, and the principal crown of the universe; and their monarch the greatest king in Christendom; giving him the precedence before all other kings (*n*). And of this supposed pre-eminence, they say, he has ever been in possession; for although, since the time of the emperor Charles V. the

description of an ancient poet (apud Chiffletium in Luminib. Salic. ad Vindic. Hispan. p. 234.) it was

Vexillum simplex cendato simplice textum,
Splendoris Rubei, Letania qualiter uti
Ecclesiastica solet certis ex more diebus.
Quod cum Flamma habeat vulgariter Aurea nomen
Omnibus in bellis habet omnia signa præire,
Quod Regi Præstare solet Dionysius abbas,
Ad bellum quotiens sumptis proficiscitur armis.

Its last appearance was at the battle of Agincourt, 1415. Henault, Tom. I. p. 344. It afterwards came to be neglected and forgotten, and very probably is now consumed by dust and vermin. Velly, Tom. III. p. 45.

(93) This was the old French war-cry, concerning the origin of which De La Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 9. p. 49, gives several opinions. It is remarkable that formerly the first king at arms was likewise stiled Mont-Joye. Villaret, Tom. XI. p. 86.

(*n*) L'Etat de la France, Tom. I. p. 2. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 7. p. 42. Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. I. ch. vi. p. 128, 129.

kings

kings of Spain have endeavoured on several occasions, to wrest the precedence from France, yet so far from being able to compass their design (*o*), they have been obliged to give it up to the French, and almost in express terms (*p*). Some, farther, account it no small prerogative of the kings of France, that by virtue of several bulls, they are not subject to excommunication, nor can their subjects be discharged from their oath of allegiance (*q*). But if the see of Rome has granted them such a privilege, yet has it not been punctually observed, several kings having felt the fulminations of the Vatican, though not so severely as other states (*q4*).

(*o*) See chap. ii.

(*p*) Voltaire, Tom. I. ch. vi. p. 130, 131. Henault's Abridgment, Vol. II. p. 722. Du Mont, Corps Diplom. Tom. VI. p. 403.

(*q*) Etat de la France, Tom. I. p. 1, 2.

(*q4*) Robert, Philip I. Lewis XII. Francis I. and Henry IV. were actually excommunicated, and in the highest degree; and severe monitoria were issued against Philip IV. and Henry III. Yet the counsellors of the parliament of Paris, in their declaration of the year 1751, concerning the king's prerogative, have expressly affirmed, *Que l'excommunication même si redoutable, quand elle est prononcée pour des causes legitimes, ne peut jamais rompre le noeud sacré, qui lie les sujets à leur roi.* "That even excommunications, so much to be dreaded when pronounced on just grounds, can never dissolve the sacred tie, which binds subjects to their kings." De Real, Science, &c. Part. I. Tom. II. p. 32.

S E C T. XXV.

Coronation.

Pepin was the first who caused himself to be anointed and crowned with religious solemnities; and in this he has been constantly imitated by all his successors (r). But Lewis VII. on occasion of crowning his son Philip II. settled the order and ceremonies to be observed on these occasions, and conferred on the archbishop of Rheims the privilege of inaugurating the king (s). The unction is performed with the oil out of the sacred phial, as it is called (95). Among the insignia delivered to the king, is the Hand of Righteousness (96), which he holds in his left hand, and the sceptre in his right. He first promises on oath, to maintain and protect all bishops and churches

(r) Henault, Vol. I. p. 52. Velly, Tom. I. p. 354.

(s) De la Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 10. p. 51.

(95) This oil is said to have been brought from heaven by a dove, at the baptism of king Clovis; the deacon who was to bring the oil for the unction not being able to make his way through the crowd.

Dans un air lumineux une colombe vole
En son bec de coral tenant une fiole
Elle apporte un prelat (St. Remy) ce vase precieux
Plein d'un baume sacré, rare present des cieux.

Clovis, ou La France Chretienne par J. Desmarets, Liv. XXIV. p. 310.

(96) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 8. p. 44, gives a description of this curiosity.

in their respective rights; then takes four other oaths relating to the kingdom, to the order of the Holy Ghost, and that of St. Lewis, and the observation of the duellist (t). After which he receives the sacrament in both kinds (u); and within a few days after receiving the sacrament a second time, and performing his devotions at the relics of St. Marculf, he touches people for the king's evil (97).

It is a custom at the coronation of the king, to ask the spectators whether they acknowledge him for their sovereign (x). This, probably, had its rise in ancient times, when the hereditary right of the kings was not fully acknowledged; but that right being now unalterably established, this indeed, and the whole ceremony of the coronation appears superfluous (98).

(t) *Ceremonial de France*, Liv. II. ch. ii. §. 1. in the *Ceremonial Diplomat. de Mr. Rouffet*, Tom. I. p. 199.

(u) *Becmani Synt. Dignit. Diff.* VI. cap. i. §. 4. p. 518. *Ceremonial de France*, Liv. II. ch. ii. §. 2, 3, 4. in *Rouffet*, Tom. I. p. 211, 218, 228, 234.

(97) This ceremony is frequently repeated, and Lewis XI. at a certain time performed it every week. *Comines Memoires*, Liv. VI. ch. vii. and still it is customary for the king, after receiving the sacrament on the day preceding the great festivals, to touch not only those who have the evil, but other diseased persons. *Nemeitz Séjour de Paris*, c. xxiii. p. 191.

(x) *Ceremonial de France*, Liv. II. ch. ii. §. 1. in the *Ceremonial Diplom. de Mr. Rouffet*, Tom. I. p. 199.

(98) The abbé de St. Pierre is for totally abolishing the coronation, "because, says he, it is purely the king's birth

S E C T. XXVI.

Title of the
heir to the
crown.

The heir to the crown of France has been stiled the Dauphin ever since the time of Philip VI. under whom the province of Dauphiné was annexed to the crown of France (99). He was at first stiled Dauphin de Viennois. But Lewis XIV. created his

which gives him the right of sovereignty ;—whereas these antique ceremonies favour a little too much of the times of the former kings, who were created by election, and may make the people fancy that the king is but imperfectly such till he is crowned ; which is ridiculous to think of." *Annal. Polit. de St. Pierre, Tom. II. p. 220, 221.*

(99) Hubert II. dauphin of Viennois, on the loss of his only son Andrew, determined to retire from the world, and, in a compact of the 23d of April 1343, transferred his territories, which were called Dauphiné, to Philip duke of Orleans, second son to Philip VI. and on his decease, to any one of the sons of John duke of Normandy, Philip the VIth's eldest son, whom the king or duke should chuse, on condition of his being called Dauphin, and bearing the arms of Dauphiné with those of France, and that the country should never be united with the kingdom, till erected into an empire. *Villaret, Tom. VIII. p. 483. Leibnitii, Cod. J. G. Diplom. p. 158, & seqq.* In another treaty of the 7th of June 1344, this grant was transferred to John duke of Normandy, Philip the VIth's eldest son, or one of his sons ; and lastly, in a third compact, concluded on the 3d of March 1349, he actually delivered up his territories on the before-mentioned terms, to Charles, the duke of Normandy's eldest son, who was afterwards king Charles V. since which time the eldest sons of the kings of France have borne the title of Dauphin. *Henault's Abridgment, Tom. I. p. 297. Villaret, Tom. VIII. p. 484, 487.* The royal mandates in Dauphiné are made out under the title of the former princes of that country ; it has likewise its particular seal, of which the chancellor has the keeping. *Henault and Villaret ibid.* As to the origin of the name Dauphin and Dauphiné, it is very uncertain ; but some conjectures relating to it occur in *Becmani Synt. Dignit. Dissert. III. chap. iv. §. 6.* and in *Boulainvilliers, Etat de la France, Tom. II. p. 438.*

The

fon Dauphin de France (*y*), which title has been used ever since.

The other royal children, together with those of the Dauphin, and more remote descendants in a direct line, all bear the surname de France (100); and those of the male line, particular titles conferred on them by the king (1). The collateral branches of the royal family, who are called Princes of the Blood, and have a right to the succession, inherit the titles of their fathers (2).

Of the other royal children.

Of the princes of the blood.

S E C T. XXVII.

Since the indivisibility of the monarchy has taken place, the younger sons of the king have only an usufructuary property, and the incomes of certain lands; the sovereignty, and likewise the reversion of them, on a failure of male heirs, being reserved to the crown (3). This in France is called

Revenues of the younger princes,

(*y*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 13.

(100) This extends both to sons and daughters. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. ii. art. 13. p. 72, 73, 81.

(1) As the duke of Burgundy, duke of Berry, count of Provence, count of Artois.

(2) The first prince of the blood is at present the duke of Orleans. He has, besides some privileges above the others, a yearly pension of 150,000 livres. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 1. p. 391, 392.

(3) Such lands at first were given them for their male and female heirs; but this was afterwards altered, and not only

Ap-

and of the
princesses.

Appanage (x). The king's daughters, by a regulation of Charles V. have a pecuniary portion on their marriage, and the incomes of certain estates whilst they remain single (a).

S E C T. XXVIII.

Origin of
the royal
family.

The royal family of France has sat on the throne near eight hundred years in an uninterrupted male succession, and with the highest dignity and reputation; a prosperity which no other family in Europe can boast. Hugh Capet (4), the founder of this potent house, concerning whose extraction the French writers themselves do not agree (b), so far from having any right to the crown,

the daughters, but likewise the collateral relations are excluded from any inheritance therein. De Real, Tom. II. p. 63.

(x) De Real, Science du Gouvernem. Part. I. Tom. II. p. 63, &c.

(a) De Real, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 62.

(4) Dante Alighieri, the celebrated Italian poet, in his Purgatorio, Canto XX. p. m. 321, brings in this king talking at the following rate:

I fui radice de la mala pianta,
Che la terra Christiana tutta aduggia
Sì, che buon frutto rado se ne schianta.

Di me son nati i Filippi e Loigi,
Per cui — — — é Francia retta.
Figliuol fui d'un beccajo di Parigi.

The poet's motive for taking such unwarrantable liberties with king Hugh and his descendants may be seen in Bayle Dict. Hist. & Crit. Art. Hugues Capet.

(b) Velly, Tom. II. p. 259, &c.

by

by mere fraud and violence supplanted the lawful heir ; but this illegality is now obliterated by the undisturbed and long possession of his descendants (c).

S E C T. XXIX.

Paris is the capital of the kingdom, and ^{Capital} one of the largest cities not only in Europe (5), but in the whole world (6).

The kings formerly resided here in the ^{King's seats,} Louvre (7), but since the building of the

(c) Boulainvilliers, Hist. de l'anc. Gouvern. de la France, Tom. I. p. 130, 149. &c.

(5) It is much disputed whether Paris or London be greater. Some give it for the latter, both as to extent and number of inhabitants (Keysser's Travels) ; others look upon Paris to exceed London, at least in the number of inhabitants. See Mr. Suffmilch's Display of the Divine Oeconomy in the Vicissitudes of the Human Species, a German work, Vol. II. cap. 25.

(6) In Paris are reckoned 22,000 houses, many of which are seven stories high ; 52 parish-churches ; 58 convents of males, and 78 of females ; and 978 streets. An edict was issued in 1701 for dividing it into twenty quarters. De La Force, Tom. II. ch. i. art. 4. p. 74, 75. The wealth and splendor of the whole kingdom center in Paris, high and low resorting thither from all parts of the country. Paris is said to bring into the treasury above thirty-four millions of livres communibus annis. Brice, Description de Paris, Tom. I. p. 15, 16.

(7) This palace was built by Philip II. Francis I. pulled it down, and began to build a new one, which was carried on by Henry II. and at last finished by Lewis XIII. and Lewis XIV. but not completely. Brice, Tom. I. p. 17. De La Force, Tom. II. ch. i. art. 4. p. 117, &c. On this building was made the famous epigram ;

Par Urbi Domus haec, Urbs Orbi, neutra triumphis
Et Belli & Pacis par, Ludovice, tuis.

palace

palace at Versailles by Lewis XIV. this has been the king's usual residence (8). The other royal seats are, Vincennes, Madrid, Meudon, Trianon, Marly, St. Germain en Laye, and Fontainebleau (9).

S E C T. XXX.

Great officers of state.

Under the kings of the Merovingian race, the *Majores Domus* (10), or mayors of the palace, were the chief state officers; and in process of time, got the whole administration into their hands, leaving the kings only an empty title (*d*). Under the Carolingians, and still more under the first descendants of Hugh Capet, the post of high-steward rose to no less consideration and power than that of the *Majores Domus* (11).

For which the author is said to have been rewarded with a hundred thousand livres. Everard. Otto. in. Notit. Rer. Publ. cap. ii. §. 74.

(8) A description of it is to be found in De La Force, Tom. II. p. 316, &c. It cost forty millions. The abbé de St. Pierre finds great fault with this edifice, and particularly, as not standing in a pleasant situation; and thinks that only a part of that sum laid out on St. Germain, as being delightfully situated, would have answered much better. *Anal. Polit.* Tom. I. p. 225.

(9) See a description of these seats in De La Force, Tom. II. p. 302, 316, 331, 340.

(10) They are likewise called *Magistri Palatii*, *Praefecti Aulæ*, *Praefecti Domus*, *Duces & Principes Domus*. *Hotoman. cap. xv. p. 130.*

(*d*) *Hotomani Franco-Gallia*, cap. xv. p. 128.

(11) He commanded the armies, presided over the administration of justice within the court, and had the management of the revenue appointed for the king's household.

Hence

Hence it was that king Philip II. thought proper to suppress it; and divided the functions of the high-steward between the constable and the Grand Maître de France (*e*); and thus the constable came to be the first officer both of the crown and state (12). But Lewis XIII. superseding this post in 1627, the pre-eminence belonged to the chancellor (*f*), who is head of the law, presides in all the king's councils, and who has the keeping of the great seal of the kingdom (13). Though since Francis I. the seal has often been in other hands; and Henry II. in 1551, created a new office, under the title of Keeper of the Seal, with

(*e*) Velly, Tom. III. p. 355, 356.

(12) The constable, anciently termed Comes stabuli, Conestabulus, Conestablius, Constabulus, and Constabularius, was, at first, master of the horse, and the fifth in rank among the crown-officers. Hotoman. cap. xvii. p. 138, &c. De La Force, Tom. I. chap. xx. art. 3. p. 419. But under Philip II. he was made chief field-marshal; and Matthew de Montmorency was the first constable with this additional dignity. Henault, Tom. I. p. 149, 193. The authority and power of this first officer of the crown was indeed enormous; and as an emblem of it, he bore two swords erect, as supporters to his coat of arms. De La Force, *ibid.* p. 420.

(*f*) Henault's Abridgment, Tom. I. p. 46.

(13) Under the Merovingian kings this officer was called Magnus Referendarius; under the Carlovingians, Notarius and Protonotarius. At length he came to be called Cancellarius, as president of the king's secretaries, who were termed Cancellarii from the Cancelli, or inclosed places within which they sat. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 1. §. 8. It is something singular that the chancellor of France never wears mourning. *Ibid.*

a power

a power little inferior to that of chancellor (g). And there have frequently been both a chancellor and a keeper of the great seal at the same time (14).

The other principal officers of the crown are, the lord steward of the household (15), the lord high admiral (16), the marshals of France (17), and lastly, the grand master of the ordnance (18). Some are like-

(g) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 1. §. 10.

(14) Concerning a particular custom of the chancellor and keeper of the seals, in subscribing their letters and other instruments, see *Memoires de Montgon*, Tom. V. p. 250.

(15) Grand Maître de France, or Grand Maître de la Maison du Roi. This last title is at present more suitable than the former, as his privileges and functions do not extend beyond the verge of the court, and in state affairs he has no manner of concern.

(16) This post was suppressed by Lewis XIII. in 1627, but Lewis XIV. restored it in 1669, though with no small abridgment of its authority and advantage. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 4. p. 437, 438.

(17) The title of Marshal formerly signified an officer who had the inspection of the stud or stables, and was under the constable as master of the horse; but when the chief command of the army was conferred on the constable, the office of marshal likewise became military. De La Force, Tom. I. chap. iii. p. 420. The first marshal placed at the head of the army was Henry Clement, under Philip II. Henault, Vol. I. p. 203. Since the suppression of the post of constable, that of marshal has been the highest military employment. At first there was but one marshal, afterwards two, and under Francis and Henry II. four; but Lewis XIII. increased them greatly, and Lewis XIV. still more; so that their number has for some time past been indefinite. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 3. p. 421.

(18) Henry IV. raised this post to the rank of a crown office, in favour of the marquis de Rosny, afterwards duke of Sully. De La Force, Tom. I. chap. xx. art. 3. p. 431.

wife

wife for classing the lord chamberlain, the great huntsman, the master of the horse, and the lord almoner (*b*).

The particular advantage of the crown-officers above other court-officers, is the certainty of their posts, holding them durante vitâ (*i*): accordingly their title (*19*) runs, as of the kingdom and not of the king, thus, Grand Veneur de la France, &c.

S E C T. XXXI.

The constitution of the French court is very regular and orderly, and the functions of all and every officer punctually ascertained; the number of the high and low, spiritual and temporal, is very great. The first of the ecclesiastics is the lord almoner (*20*), who is likewise the head of all the court-clergy (*21*). The premier among

Court-officers.

(*b*) Loiseau des Offices, L. IV. c. ii. in De La Force, Tom. I. chap. xx. art. 1. p. 396.

(*i*) Hotomani Franco-Gallia, cap. xix. p. 159.

(*19*) Qui regni & reipublicae universae magistratus erant, eos majores nostri adjecto amplissimo Franciae nomine, designârunt, quem morem etiam nunc retinemus. Hotoman. cap. xix. p. 159.

(*20*) He was anciently called Apocriſarius. The title of Grand Aumonier was first used under Charles VIII. This is the zenith of ecclesiastical dignities, solstitium honorum. Etat de la France, Tom. I. ch. i. p. 24.

(*21*) As also commander of the order of the Holy Ghost; of this and his other honours see Etat de la France, Tom. I. ch. i.

the temporal officers is the lord steward of the household : under him are all the court-offices relating to the king's table, kitchen, and cellar (22), with the jurisdiction over the respective officers ; the greater part of whom he likewise appoints (23). The other temporal court-officers are, the lord chamberlain (24), the four first lords of the bed-chamber (25), together with twenty-six gentlemen in ordinary (26), the great master of the wardrobe (27), the master of

(22) These offices are seven ; 1. Le Gobelet. 2. La Cuisine, qui sont seulement pour la bouche du Roi. 3. La Paneterie-commun. 4. L'Echanfonnerie-commun. 5. La Cuisine-commun. 6. La Fruiterie. 7. La Fouriere. *Etat de la France*, Tom. I. ch. ii. p. 86.

(23) Concerning his functions, privileges, and advantages, see *Etat de la France*, Tom. I. ch. ii. p. 48. and *De La Force*, Tom. I. chap. iii. art. 2. p. 87.

(24) Le Grand Chambellan ; this post was formerly much more considerable than at present, he being now only the first lord of the bed-chamber. *Etat de la France*, Tom. I. ch. iii. art. 1. p. 134, &c.

(25) Francis I. instead of the Chambrier, or single gentleman of the bed-chamber, appointed two chief gentlemen of the bed-chamber (*Premiers Gentilshommes de la Chambre*). Lewis XIII. increased them to four. *Etat de la France*, Tom. I. ch. iii. art. 2. p. 139, 147. *De La Force*, Tom. I. chap. iii. art. 7. p. 96.

(26) *Gentilshommes ordinaires de la Maison du Roy*. These were first instituted by Henry III. to the number of forty-five ; and by Henry IV. they were reduced to twenty-four. But during the minority of Lewis XIV. his mother, as regent, made an addition of two, and they have ever since continued at twenty-six. *Etat de la France*, Tom. I. ch. iii. art. 7. p. 227.

(27) *Grand-Maitre de la garderobe* : this post was created by Lewis XIV. in 1669.

the

the horse (28), the great huntsman (29), the great falconer (30), the great wolf-hunter (31), the provost of the palace (32), the grand master of the ceremonies (33.) Besides these are likewise several other officers belonging to the household, particularly ten physicians, ten surgeons, and four apothecaries (34).

(28) Grand Ecuyer, who formerly was under the constable and the marshals of France, and called Maître d'Ecurie, master of the stable. But the constable and the marshal being made military officers, the Maître d'Ecurie was made superintendant of the stables; and Lewis XI. conferred on him the title of Grand Ecuyer. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. iii. art. 15. p. 131, 132.

(29) Grand Veneur. This title had its rise in Charles the Vth's time; being before called Maître Veneur. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. iii. art. 16. Concerning his functions, and the officers under him, see Etat de la France, Tom. I. ch. vii. art. 1. p. 374.

(30) Grand Fauconnier: he was formerly called Maître de la Fauconnerie. De La Force, Tom. I. chap. iii. art. 16. p. 135. Etat de la France, Tom. I. chap. vii. art. 3.

(31) Grand Louvetier. Concerning this employment see l'Etat de la France, Tom. I. chap. vii. art. 4. De La Force, Tom. I. chap. iii. art. 16.

(32) Grand Prevôt de l'Hotel du Roi. For this employment see l'Etat de France, Tom. I. chap. v. art. 5. and chap. viii. p. 603.

(33) Grand Maître de Ceremonies. Besides whom, there are likewise a Maître des Ceremonies and Aide des Ceremonies, and two Introduceurs des Ambassadeurs. Etat de la France, Tom. I. chap. ix. p. 611, 612.

(34) These are collectively called Officiers de la Santé du Roi, officers of the king's health. The principal Physician is called Premier Medecin du Roi, with the title of counsellor of state. The others are termed simply Medecin ordinaire du Roi. So the chief surgeon is called Premier Chirurgien du Roi, with the title of king's counsellor: and the others Chirurgien ordinaire du Roi. Under the four court-apothecaries are four sub-apothecaries. Etat de la France, chap. iii. art. 7. p. 232.

S E C T. XXXII.

Order of St.
Michael.

The temporal orders of knighthood in France are three. The most ancient is that of St. Michael, instituted on the 1st of August 1469, by Lewis XI. and the number of the knights fixed at thirty-six, all noblemen. The sign of the order is a gold medal, representing Michael the archangel fighting with the serpent, pendant to a gold chain (35). But this order becoming too common under Henry II. and in the succeeding reigns, fell into such contempt that no person of any rank was desirous of it (*k*). Lewis XIV. restored it in the year 1665, and increased the number of knights to an hundred, exclusive of those who at the same time are of the order of the Holy Ghost (*l*).

Of the Holy
Ghost,

The order of St. Michael being grown so contemptible, Henry III. on the 1st of January 1579 (36), instituted the order of the Holy

(35) The cause of this emblem, and the intention of Lewis XI. in instituting this order, may be seen in Mezeray, Tom. II. p. 730.

(*k*) Mezeray, Abregé Chronol. Tom. III. p. 1136.

(*l*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. x. p. 171.

(36) The order was consecrated on that day with great solemnity, though the institution had been signed in December 1578.

Ghost (37) ; the principal of all the orders in France. The number of knights are one hundred ; among whom there must be four cardinals and five prelates (38). To the order belong four principal officers, a chancellor, master of the ceremonies, treasurer, and secretary (39), with four subordinate (40). The ensigns of the order are, a golden cross, in the middle of which, on one side, is a white dove, and on the other, the image of Michael the archangel, at a

(37) Henry III. founded this order in honour of the Holy Ghost, on account of his being elected king of Poland in Whitsuntide 1573, and his accession to the crown of France on the same festival in 1574. See the introduction to the laws of the order in Leibnitz Cod. J. G. Diplom. Mantiss. But he took the model of it from an ancient order of the like name, instituted by Lewis I. king of Naples. The original of the laws of this order had been brought to Venice. Henry III. passing through Venice, in his journey from Poland to France, was presented with this instrument, and when, four years after, he founded the order of the Holy Ghost, he modelled it from the laws of the said ancient order, but was for burning the original, that the order might appear his own plan. The chancellor Chiverny, however, found means to save it, and at length it came into the hands of one Le Fevre, a priest, who had it printed.

(38) The knights are to prove their nobility from four generations on both sides. Henry III. was for bestowing upon each a commendam of church-lands ; but the pope and the clergy flew into a flame at the bare proposal. The knights, however, assumed, and still retain, the title of Commandeur, and each has a yearly pension of four or five thousand livres.

(39) These, like the knights, wear the cross of the order, but not the chain. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. x.

(40) These are the steward, the genealogist, the herald, and the door-keeper. Ibid.

broad blue ribbon, crossing from the right shoulder to the left side, where on the coat is likewise embroidered a silver cross, with a dove of the same. Every knight has farther, a chain of the order, weighing about a hundred Ecus d'or; which, on his death, his heir either returns, or pays three thousand livres in lieu of it (*m*).

and of St.
Lewis.

The third order is that of St. Lewis, founded by Lewis XIV. in the year 1693, purely for military persons. It consists of eight Grandcroix, twenty-four commanders, and a great number of knights; sometimes not less than three or four thousand. The ensign of the order is a gold cross; on one side of which is the image of St. Lewis, and on the other a drawn sword, with a laurel-wreath at the point, and this inscription: "Bell. Virtutis præm". The Grandcroix wear this cross at a broad flame-coloured ribbon, hanging from their shoulders down on their breast, and embroidered on their coat and cloak. The Commandeurs likewise wear it with such a ribbon, but not embroidered on their cloaths. The knights, who must have served ten years as officers, wear the cross with a narrow flame-coloured ribbon, tied to a button-hole.

(*m*) Etat de la France, Tom. II. p. 368.

One Grandcroix, three Commandeurs, and the eighth part of the knights, are sea-officers.

The king has assigned three hundred thousand livres a year in pensions to this order : a Grandcroix receives annually six thousand ; eight of the Commandeurs four thousand ; the other sixteen three thousand each ; some knights a thousand, others six hundred, or five hundred livres (n).

As the knights of these three orders must be of the Roman Catholic religion (41), Lewis XV. in the year 1759, instituted a New order of knight-hood for protestant officers. new order for protestant officers, by the title of Ordre du Merite Militaire. It has two Grandcroix and four Commandeurs ; the number of knights indefinite. The cross of the order represents a sword erect, with this inscription : “ Pro Virtute Bellicâ ;” and on the reverse is a wreath with the words, “ Ludovicus XV. instituit 1759 (o).”

(n) Etat de la France, Tom. II. ch. iii. p. 389, & suiv. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. x. p. 178, 179.

(41) An exception to this has sometimes been made in the order of St. Michael, for, among other protestants, it was conferred on the famous Dutch admiral De Ruyter.

(o) New Genealogical Historical Accounts (a German work).

S E C T. XXXIII.

State of religion in France.

Christianity is commonly thought to have been planted in Gaul so early as the first century (42); and the Gauls were universally christians, when the Franks made a conquest of the country. The latter were heathens at that time, but, after the example of their king Clovis, gradually embraced the christian faith, and became genuine orthodox christians; whereas the other foreign nations then settled in Gaul, as the Burgundians and Visigoths, professed Arianism. Though the papacy was at first strongly established there, yet has it met with some considerable shocks by the Waldenses (43) towards the close of the twelfth century; and afterwards by the Albigenes (44), whose heresy appeared to the see of Rome so dangerous, that it undertook

(42) Some think St. Luke to be the first who preached the gospel in Gaul, others attribute this good work to St. Philip. Mezeray, Book IV. ch. ii. p. 408.

(43) This name is derived from a merchant of Lyons named Peter, a native of Vaux; in Latin, Waldum or Validium; and thence called Valdensis or Validisus. Mosheim, Institut. Hist. Eccles. Saec. XII. Part. II. cap. v. §. 11. p. 424.

(44) In the thirteenth century all heretics in France were called Albigenes, and the Valdenses included; but, in a more restrained sense, the Albigenes were a particular sect, and in many tenets, no better than the Manichees. Mosheim, Saec. XIII. Part. II. ch. 5. §. 8. p. 480.

to extirpate them by arms and the inquisition (45). But the commotions in the kingdom on account of the reformation were still greater. Though the protestants, who had been nick-named Huguenots (46), were severely persecuted under Francis I. and Henry II. yet did their numbers encrease to such a degree, that they were able to face their enemies in the field (47). As Henry IV. owed the crown, in a great measure, if not chiefly, to their attachment, he, in 1598, solemnly granted them the full and free exercise of their religion by the edict of Nantz (*p*). But this was revoked by Lewis XIV. in 1685 (*q*); in consequence of which, not less than half a million of people withdrew out of the kingdom, and settled in the protestant countries of Europe; and some removed even to

(45) The Waldenses maintained themselves in France a considerable time after. Lewis XI. in 1478, gave a protection brief against the inquisition to those who lived in the vallies of Dauphiné. History of the Waldenses, p. 52.

(46) For the origin of this name, which came into use about the year 1560, see Thuan. Hist. Lib. XXIV. p. m. 494. and Mezeray, Abridg. Tom. III. p. 999.

(47) Naude, in his Considerations Politiques sur les Coups d'Etat, chap. iii. p. 167, says, concerning the massacre of Paris, that it was a lawful stroke of policy, and that all he censures in it is, that it was not completely carried into execution.

(*p*) Du Mont, Corps Diplom. Tom. V. P. I. p. 545.

(*q*) Du Mont, Corps Diplom. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 117.

the other parts of the world (r). But amidst all oppressions, the number of the secret professors of the reformed religion is computed at not less than two millions (48).

Thus, since the revocation of the edict of Nantz, the Roman Catholic religion alone is tolerated in France, though not without violent disturbances by the Jansenist controversies (49); the consequences of which frequently break out: so that, notwithstanding all endeavours and severities, religious tranquility cannot be said to be fully restored.

The Jews are tolerated in some cities, and the Lutherans and Reformed enjoy a liberty of conscience in Alsace by treaty.

(r) Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. ch. xxxii. p. 248.

(48) But they live under continual oppressions and persecutions; yet in some provinces they are said to have their places of worship, their synods, and other customary meetings. *Les Toulouzaines, ou Lettres Historiques & Apologetiques en Faveur de la Religion Reformée.* Edinbourg, 1763. The author of the supposititious *Testament Politique du Marechal de Bellisle*, ch. ii. p. 34, &c. relates, "that in the year 1758 the reformed in France, in their own name, and the names of their brethren in Germany, made an offer to the king of thirty-five millions of livres, for a grant of liberty of conscience; but that the offer was rejected by the marshal's advice."

(49) The authors of these disputes, and of the disturbances which arose from thence in the Gallican church, were the jesuits. Mosheim, *Institut. Hist. Ecclesiast.* p. 790, & seqq. & p. 904, & seqq. and Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. ch. xxxiii. p. 264.

S E C T. XXXIV.

Of all the Roman Catholic kingdoms and states in Europe, France has the most numerous clergy, excepting Italy, the chief seat of that religion. In the several districts subject to this crown are eighteen archbishoprics and one hundred and nine bishoprics.

Archbishoprics.	Suffragan Bishoprics.	Number.
I. Paris.	Chartres, Meaux, Orleans, Blois - - - - -	4
II. Lyons.	St. Claude, Autun, Langres, Maçon, Chalon sur Saone, Dijon - - - - -	6
III. Rouen.	Bayeux, Avranches, Evreux, Seez, Lisieux, Coutance	6
IV. Sens.	Troyes, Auxerre, Nevers, Clamecy, formerly Beth- lehem - - - - -	4
V. Rheims.	Soissons, Chalons sur Marne, Laon, Senlis, Beauvais, Amiens, Noyon, Boulogne	8
VI. Tours.	Mans, Angers, Rennes, Nantz, Quimper-Coren- tin, Vannes, St. Pol de Leon, Treguier, St. Brieux, St. Malo, Dol - - - -	11
VII. Bourges.	Clermont, Limoges, Tulle, Puy, St. Flour - - - -	5
	VIII. Alby.	

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

Archbishops	Suffragan Bishops.	Number
VIII. Alby.	Rhodes, Castres, Cahors, Vabres, Mande - - -	5
IX. Bourdeaux.	Agen, Angoulême, Saintes, Poitiers, Perigueux, Condom, Sarlat, Rochelle, Luçon - - -	9
X. Auch.	Aqs, Leitours, Cominge, Conferans, Aire, Bazas, Tarbes, Oleron, l'Es-car, Bayonne - - -	10
XI. Narbonne.	Beziers, Agde, Carcassonne, Nîmes, Montpellier, Lode-se, Uzes, St. Pons, Alet, Alais, Perpignan	11
XII. Toulouse.	Montauban, Mirepoix, Savaux, Rieux, Lombez, St. Papoul, Pamiers - -	7
XIII. Arles.	Marseille, St. Paul trois Chateaux, Toulon, Orange	4
XIV. Aix.	Apt, Rieux, Frejus, Gap, Cisteron - - -	5
XV. Vienne.	Grenoble, Viviers, Valence, Die (50) - - -	4

(50) Some archbishops farther bear particular titles, and such as are partly temporal. The archbishop of Paris is stiled Duc de St. Cloud; of Lyons, Primat des Gaules; of Rheims, Primat de le Gaule Belgique; of Bourges, Patriarque & Primat des Aquitaines; of Bourdeaux, Primat des Aquitaines; of Narbonne, Primat; of Arles, Prince & Primate; of Vienne, Comte & Primat; of Ambrun, Prince; of Besançon, Prince du St. Empire; of Cambray, Duc de Cambray and Prince du St. Empire, Comte de Cambresia. Several bishops have likewise particular privileges, and some are lords in their dioceses. De La Force, Tom. J. ch. xviii. Part. I. p. 229.

XVI. Ambrun.

Archbishoprics.	Suffragan Bishoprics.	Number.
XVI. Ambrun.	Digne, Grace, Vence, Glandeves, Senez	5
XVII. Befançon.	Bellay en Bougey (51)	1
XVIII. Cambray (52).	Arras, St. Omer (53)	2

The four dioceses of Metz, Toul, Verdun, and Strasburgh (54), are likewise under the sovereignty of France.

These eighteen archbishoprics constitute so many ecclesiastical provinces, which contain 22,291 parishes, 770 abbeys and priories for men, and 317 for women, together with 14,953 convents (5). The number of ecclesiasticks and religious must consequently be very great (55). Among the religious orders, the jesuits had acquired a consideration and opulence beyond all others : but in the year 1762, they were totally suppressed, and expelled the kingdom (56).

(51) Under this archbishop are likewise the bishops of Geneva and St. Jean de Maurienne, which lie out of France.

(52) Under him are likewise the bishops of Basil and Lausanne.

(53) Another suffragan of his is the bishop of Tournay.

(54) The first three are within the diocese of Triers, the last in that of Mentz.

(55) Some compute the persons belonging to the church at 500,000. The abbé de St. Pierre estimates them at 40,000 parochial priests, and 60,000 others; 100,000 monks, and 100,000 nuns. Too many monks, adds he. by one half, and three-fourths too many nuns. *Annal. Polit. Part. I. p. 24.* He afterwards mentions a scheme of the chancellor de l'Hopital for making monks and nuns useful to the state. *Ibid. p. 27.*

(56) The cause of this great event is to be seen in the continuation of a German work, called Genealo-

The

The revenues of the whole collective body of the clergy were, in the year 1655, computed at 312 millions (*t*) of livres. At present they are at least 400 millions (*u*).

S E C T. XXXV.

Order of St.
Lazarus.

The order of St. Lazarus is likewise ranked among the ecclesiastics in France. Lewis IX. first introduced it; but upon its becoming cheap, Henry IV. united it with the order of our Lady of Mount Carmel, under the stile of Ordre Royal Militaire & Hospitalier de Notre Dame du Mont Carmel & de St. Lazare de Jerusaleem. Lewis XIV. in 1680, bestowed considerable revenues on this joint order, and erected for it five grand priories, and 140 commanderies (*x*). Here, likewise, we are to take notice of the knights of St. John, or Malta, who have in France 250 commanderies, under which are six grand priories, and four bailliages, or bailliwicks.

gical and Historical Accounts. Parts VII. VIII. IX. and X.

(*t*) See Professor Achenwall's Constitution of the principal European States (a German work), ch. iii. §. 40.

(*u*) Mr. Wernich's State of France (a German work).

(*x*) Greg. Rivii Puritani Monast. Hist. Occident. cap. cx. p. 223, & seqq. & cap. cxxxi. p. 279.

S E C T. XXXVI.

The Merovingian and Carlovingian kings always nominated the archbishops and bishops, and disposed of the abbies, even to laymen; till at the very commencement of the Capetian race, the chapters assumed a right of electing the archbishops and bishops; and the monks followed their example with regard to the abbots. But the popes quickly came to interfere in the elections, and by all manner of artifices and intrigues got the nomination into their hands; which abuse, however, Lewis IX. suppressed by a formal prohibition. The popes, who in the fourteenth century resided at Avignon, invented the Annates, expectatives and reservations, by which they became very burdensome to the French bishoprics. These abuses being grown common throughout all Christendom, the council of Basil strenuously endeavoured to abolish them, but without effect, for the pope rejected their decrees. Charles VII. however, in 1438, agreeably to the decrees of that council, caused an assembly of the French clergy at Bourges to draw up the Pragmatic Sanction, by which the elections were put on their original footing; and the Annates,

The king nominates the archbishops and bishops, and confers abbies.

ex-

expectatives, and reservations, were suppressed (*y*). This being both a loss and affront to the see of Rome, it left no stone unturned to cast things into another mould; which was at length brought about by the Concordat, concluded in 1515 at Bologna, between Francis I. and Leo X. by which the king's nomination of bishops and abbots was confirmed, and the pope (*z*) recovered the Annates (57). He likewise confirms the new archbishops and bishops, for which nine several bulls (*a*) are required; and Provence, Brittany, and the countries which have been conquered since that compact, not being included, the pope, by an indulto, empowers the king to fill up the vacancies (*b*).

The regale.

In the dioceses where the king names the prelates, he has the regale (58), or the

(*y*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 5. p. 247. Du Mont, Corps Diplom. Tom. III. P. I. p. 57.

(*z*) Mezeray, Abr. Chron. Tom. II. p. 837. and Du Mont. Corps Diplom. Tom. IV. P. I. p. 229.

(57) The amount of the Annates in the dioceses, abbies, and priories of France, occurs in the Taxa Cancellariæ Romanæ in Lucem emissæ & Notis Illustrata a L. Banck, p. 142.

(*a*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. v. p. 251, 253, 254.

(*b*) Ibid. 251.

(58) The origin of this pre-eminent right in the crown of France is uncertain. Some affirm, that it was acknowledged by the bishops so early as the Council of Orleans in 511.

right of levying the incomes of the vacant dioceses, and disposes of all ecclesiastical employments appertaining to them, till the new prelate has taken the oath of allegiance to the king, and his taking it is entered on record in the chamber of accounts at Paris (c). Lewis XIV. in 1673, extended the regale to all dioceses in the countries subject to the crown of France; which pope Innocent XI. very warmly opposed. But the French clergy having, at their assembly in 1682, unanimously acquiesced in the king's edict, the universality of the regale was acknowledged and ratified without any exception (d) (59).

S E C T. XXXVII.

The ecclesiastical jurisdiction acquired such a large extension under the emperor Lewis the Debonnaire and his successors, that the temporal became of little or no consideration. So flagrant and so enormous an abuse gave

Ecclesiastical jurisdiction.

Henault, Tom. I. p. 5. If that cannot be proved, certain it is, that the Merovingian kings have exercised the regale. Velly, Hist. de France, Tom. I. p. 60, 61, 64.

(c) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 6.

(d) Ibid. p. 256. Velly, Tom. I. p. 64.

(59) The king formerly gave the incomes of the regale to the new prelates; but since the revocation of the edict of Nantz, a third was reserved for pensions and rewards to the new converts. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 6. p. 256.

occasion afterwards to its being reduced within very narrow limits; and particularly in 1539, by an edict of Francis I. Hence arose appeals from the sentences of ecclesiastical courts to the parliament, on any manifest abuse (60): and all ecclesiastical affairs, in which temporal or state concerns were mixed, came to be tried by the temporal courts (*e*). Under the Merovingian and Carlovingian kings, the bishops acknowledged no other jurisdiction above them in penal affairs, than the councils or general diets, at which all the bishops assisted: but since Charles the Vth's time, this jurisdiction has been lodged in the parliaments; and they have exercised it, not only over bishops, but sometimes over cardinals themselves (*f*). The clergy universally, in all temporal matters, whether real, or mixed, or penal, are subject to the civil tribunals; and in great crimes, as high treason, may be executed without any previous degradation (*g*). Thus the French clergy are in much greater subjection to the king than the ecclesiastics of other Catholic countries.

(60) Appels comme d'Abus. On this are founded the judicial proceedings of the parliaments against those ecclesiastics, who refused to administer the sacrament to persons, on account of their not having subscribed the bull *Unigenitus*.

(*e*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 2. p. 238, 239.

(*f*) Ibid. art. 3. p. 243.

(*g*) Ibid. art. 4. p. 244, 245.

S E C T. XXXVIII.

The French clergy, ever since the commencement of the monarchy, have paid taxes like the other states of the kingdom.

The French clergy not exempt from taxes.

At a diet in 1188, it was enacted, on occasion of a croisade to Palestine, undertaken by Philip II. that the clergy should contribute the tenth part of their yearly incomes to that enterprize, tending to the advancement of religion: and from that time the imposts laid on the clergy have always been called tenths. The popes formerly asserted, that, without their permission, no contributions could be required of the clergy (*b*); and it appears that pope Leo X. on making the Concordat with Francis I. granted him two-tenths (*i*): but since that time the kings of France have accustomed the clergy to pay the tenths, without any application to the see of Rome (*k*). These tenths are become a regular tax, which the clergy grant the king every tenth year (61). But, in

(*b*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 10. p. 276, 279.

(*i*) Mezeray, Tom. II. p. 837.

(*k*) St. Pierre, Annal. Polit. Part. I. p. 26.

(61) The ordinary tithes annually demanded of the clergy, have for about fifty years past, amounted to two millions of livres. The uses to which they are applied occur in De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 12, p. 296.

process of time, the court farther demanded an extraordinary contribution, called "don gratuit," free gift; and since the reign of Lewis XIII. very considerable sums have been granted, under that denomination, at every general meeting (*l*). In the year 1750 the court was for subjecting the clergy to the twentieth penny; and for this purpose required an account of their revenues (*m*): but this they opposed, and bought off the demand by a sum of seven millions five hundred thousand livres (*n*).

Disputes frequently arising on account of the contributions payable by the clergy, ecclesiastical exchequers have been established at Paris, Rouen, Lyons, Tours, Toulouse, Bourdeaux, Aix, Bourges, and Pau. Among these, all the parishes are divided, with each a Bureau Diocesain, or diocese office (*o*). The clergy have likewise their receiver-general, and in the parishes a receiver, with other revenue officers (*p*).

(*l*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 10. p. 280, 281. D'Eon de Beaumont Memoir. sur les Finances, Tom. II. p. 133, 136.

(*m*) New Genealogical Historical Accounts, Part. VIII. p. 721.

(*n*) D'Eon de Beaumont, Memoir. sur les Finances, Tom. II. p. 139, 140.

(*o*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 11. p. 288, &c.

(*p*) Ibid. art. 12. p. 294, &c.

The clergy, being a very considerable Assembly of the clergy. body, hold, at certain times, assemblies, ordinary and extraordinary. The ordinary are either great or small; the former meet every ten years, and the latter (62) every five years after the former. But the extraordinary are never convened but in any particular juncture or emergency. To the ordinary great assemblies, every ecclesiastical province sends four deputies; two of the first rank, bishops or archbishops; and two of the second, abbots or priors (q).

The ordinary sessions being principally held on account of the subsidies, the clergy of the conquered countries do not assist at them (63), as not included in these contributions (r). It is only by order of the king that the assemblies of the clergy are

(62) The little assemblies are termed, *Assemblées des Comptes*, as usually meeting only to audit and settle accounts. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 10. p. 281.

(q) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 10. p. 281, 282.

(63) But they have sometimes been summoned to the extraordinary assemblies; as to that held in 1682. Here were likewise deputies from the diocese of Besançon and Cambray; as the introduction of the regale into all dioceses under the crown, was to come under deliberation at that meeting. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 10. p. 282.

(r) De La Force, *ibid.* p. 282.

convened, and both the time and place of their meeting are specified in the order (s).

S E C T. XL.

Slender
power of the
pope in
France.

The power of the pope in France is far from being so great as in other Catholic countries; the cause of which is, partly, that the popes, in time of distress, and when hard pressed by the emperors of Germany, sought and found protection in France; and partly, that in the fourteenth century, the popes for a considerable time resided in that kingdom, and in this interval were sometimes very dependent on the kings; and some owed their exaltation to the interest of France. These circumstances checked the pope from carrying his power to such lengths in France as in other states; and gave the kings an opportunity of asserting and securing their rights against the papal invasions; which Philip IV. did in very abrupt terms, to Boniface VIII. (64). Hence the pope has now

(s) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 10. p. 283.

(64) For the history of this violent contest between the king and the pope, see Velly, Hist. de France, Tom. VII. p. 155, 269. Concerning this, it is remarkable, that this pope's celebrated bull *Unam Sanctam* (Extrav. Com. c. i. De Majorit. & Obed.) was annulled by his successor, as far as it related to France. Extrav. Com. c. ii. de Privileg.

no personal jurisdiction in France, but what the king allows him; and his bulls and mandates, till ratified by the king, are of no validity (*t*). The pope's nuncios must deliver in their credentials for examination to the parliament of Paris; and the latter makes them public, with such limitations as the court judges most suitable to the welfare of the kingdom, and the liberties of the Gallican church (*u*).

These liberties are considered in France, not as privileges, but as rights; which an-
Liberties of the Gallican church.
 ciently, and before the enormous aggrandisement of the papal power, all churches in the world enjoyed; and they are contained in these two propositions: 1. The pope has no authority in temporal matters within the dominion of France; nor are the clergy to obey him on his assuming such a power. 2. In ecclesiastical causes, his power is circumscribed by the decrees of such ancient councils, as have been received in the kingdom (*x*). In the celebrated assembly of the clergy held in 1682, these propositions with their conse-

(*t*) See Siegm. Jac. Baumgarten's Treatise of the Liberties of the Gallican Church, p. 35, 36.

(*u*) Tableau de la Cour de Rome, Part VI. ch. xvi. p. 441. Baumgarten, p. 35.

(*x*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xviii. art. 9. p. 265.

quences (65) were solemnly established, and confirmed by a royal declaration (*y*). But however Lewis XIV. might appear to manifest his zeal for the liberties of the Gallican church, he shewed little regard to them in the controversy of the Jansenists; for the jesuits having an unbounded sway over him, at their instigation such violent measures were adopted under his administration, and in the present reign, for introducing as a law both of the church and state (*z*), the bull Unigenitus, against which the majority of the French clergy, and almost the whole body of the nation, had declared, that the authority and infallibility of the pope, which had been plainly rejected at the assembly of the clergy in 1682, was again restored and established.

S E C T. XLI.

University
of Paris.

After the overthrow of the western Roman empire, when the darkness of barbarism had overspread all Europe, France was involved in the same calamity, till Charles the Great first erected schools as in Ger-

(65) The principal of these are, that a council is above the pope, and that he is not infallible.

(*y*) Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. ch. xxxi.

(*z*) Voltaire, Tom. II. ch. xxxiii.

many ;

many; and some even make him the founder of the university of Paris; but this I conceive to be a mistake. Lewis VII. seems rather to have laid the first foundation of this seminary, which has risen to such reputation by the munificence of succeeding kings (*a*). At first the lectures were at public halls, but in time colleges came to be built and endowed (66) by various persons of eminence, and virtues equal to their high stations; so that at present there are forty-five colleges, and among these ten for the lower classes (*b*). The faculty of philosophy, from which the rector is chosen every three months, is divided into four nations, the French, Picards, Normans, and Germans (*c*). As the university at Paris is one of the most ancient in Europe, and has long been in great reputation, the academic dignities are thought to owe their origin to that foundation (*d*).

Besides the university, there are two other colleges in Paris, Le College Royal, founded

(*a*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 4. p. 385, 386.

(66) These colleges have large incomes for paying the professors, and maintaining poor students, who are called Boursiers. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 4. p. 386,

(*b*) Brice, Descript. de Paris, Tom. I. p. 46.

(*c*) De La Force, Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2. §. 16.

(*d*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 4. p. 388.

by Francis I. and Le College de Louis le Grand, formerly called Le College de Clermont; and of which the jesuits were put in possession in 1563; but they have now lost it, together with every thing else in this kingdom. In the former are taught all the sciences except divinity; and in the latter, all except law and physic (*e*).

Other
French
universities.

The other universities in France are Toulouse, Montpellier (67), Orleans (68), Angers, Poitiers, Caen, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Cahors, Nants, Rheims, Valence, Aix, Douay, Pont-à-mousson, Besançon, Perpignan, Orange (*f*).

S E C T. XLII.

Academies
of sciences
and polite
literature.

Several learned societies, called Academies, have been instituted at Paris, for the advancement of sciences and polite literature, and are supported at the king's expence. These are, 1. Academie Française (69). 2. Des Inscriptions & Belles

(*e*) De La Force, Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2. §. 16.

(67) This consists only of two faculties, law and physic. De La Force, Tom. I. p. 386.

(68) Here is only one professorship, and that of law. Ibid. Tom. V. ch. xix. art. 2. p. 231.

(*f*) Ibid. Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 4. p. 388.

(69) This academy, which was founded in 1635, by Lewis XIII. at the persuasion of cardinal Richlieu, consists of forty members; and to this assembly, the French language

Lettres

Lettres (70). 3. Des Sciences (71). And after the model of these, others have been

owes its purity, elegance, and regularity; consequently the vogue it has obtained in Europe. Life of cardinal de Richelieu, by M. Le Clerc, Tom. ii. lib. v. The abbé Le Blanc, Tom. III. Letter LXV. speaks of it in these terms: L'Académie Française est aussi glorieuse pour la nation qu'utile pour les lettres; le plus haut point d'honneur ou celui qui les cultive, parmi nous puisse attendre, est de devenir un de ses membres. "The French academy is no less glorious to the nation than useful to literature. The highest degree of honour to which the literati can attain among us, is to be one of its members." But this pompous panegyric is extremely diminished by the sarcasms of the witty author of the *Lettres Persannes*. According to him, praise is the only occupation of these academicians: Ceux qui la composent n'ont d'autre fonction que de jaser sans cesse; l'éloge va se placer comme de lui-même dans leur babil éternel, & si-tôt qu'ils sont initiés dans ses mystères, la fureur du panegyrique vient les saisir & ne les quitte plus. Lettr. Pers. LXXI. "The sole business of its members is to be continually chattering; Panegyric seats itself among them, as presiding over their perpetual babble; and no sooner are they initiated into its mysteries, than they are seized with a frenzy of adulation, and it never leaves them." How far this is true, may be judged from a passage out of the *Memoirs of the Academy*, mentioned by Keyssler in his *Travels*, and in which adulation is carried to the most absurd extravagancy. A member of this academy mentions the surrender of the city of Strasburg in this manner: Louis dit, Que Strasbourg se soumette & Strasbourg est soumis; puissance plus qu'humaine, & qui ne peut être comparé qu'à celle qui en creant le monde a dit, Que la lumière soit faite, & la lumière fut faite. "Lewis said, Let Strasburg submit, and Strasburg submitted. This speaks a power more than human, and to be compared only to that which at creating the world said, Let there be light, and there was light." The abbé de St. Pierre likewise finds fault with several things in the French Academy, and proposes amendments. See *Annales Politiques*, Part. I. p. 50, 51.

(70) Which was founded in 1663, and consists of forty members, ten honoraries, ten pensionaries, ten associates, and ten élèves. De La Force, Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2. §. 16.

(71) This was instituted in 1666, and the objects of it are, geometry, astronomy, mechanics, chymistry, anatomy,

erected

erected in the principal cities in the kingdom. Most of these academies publish every year certain questions, and on the best answers confer prizes, which are generally gold medals. Yet, amidst all these commendable institutions, the French literati themselves complain of the decay of learning in France (g).

S E C T. XLIII.

French
poets.

The sciences, and especially oratory and poetry, flourished in Gaul under the Roman dominion (72), and the modern French have rivalled their predecessors. The number of French poets is very great; and those of the most distinguished reputation are, Malherbe, the two Corneilles, Moliere, Racine, Boileau, La Fontaine, Rousseau, Fontenelle, Crebillon, and Voltaire (73).

and botany. Its members are divided into four classes; ten honoraries, twenty pensionaries, twenty associates, twenty élèves. De La Force, Tom. II. c. i. art. 2. §. 16. p. 69.

(g) Le Blanc, Tom. III. Letter XC.

(72) Instances of this are Ausonius, Sidonius Appollinaris, Eumenius, Latinus Pacatus, and others.

(73) The French have distinguished themselves by dramatic poetry, and in this branch claim a superiority above any nation in Europe; they particularly charge the English dramatic writers with having frequently stolen from the French. Le Blanc, Tom. III. Letter LXXVII. But this author, at the same time, grants that the French have made frequent reprisals. Tom. III. p. 207. And he might have added, that, in the last century, they have done little more than copying the Spaniards. See Clark's Letters concerning the Spanish Nation.

In

In the opinion, however, of a noted French writer, there is at present a want of eminent poets in France (74) : at the same time, he animadverts on the vitiated taste which prevails in the late productions in oratory and poetry, owing to a wanton affectation of wit (*b*).

S E C T. XLIV.

But in no part of literature is France more fruitful than in history. Besides the vast numbers of those who have immortalized the exploits of their countrymen, multitudes have paid this honour even to foreigners ; and there is no country, no nation, no remarkable person in the whole universe, who has not had a Frenchman for his historian. But very small is the number of those, who are not manifestly wanting in that exactness, that truth and impartiality, required in works of this kind. The love of their own nation, and flattery towards their kings, break out every where, even in their accounts of foreign

Multitude
of French
historians.

(74) Si la gloire du Parnasse François n'est pas entièrement éclipfée, elle s'obscurcit de jour en jour. Sous un nouvel Auguste nous n'avons plus de Virgil. Le Blanc, Tom. III. Lettr. XC. " If the glory of the French Parnassus be not totally eclipsed, it daily grows darker. We have indeed another Augustus, but no Virgil. Le Blanc, Tom. III. Lettr. XC. p. 476.

(*b*) Le Blanc, Tom. II. Letter XLIII.

coun-

countries; and they praise and blame according to the terms in which foreign princes stood with the monarchs of France (75).

S E C T. XLV.

Philosophy.

The name and works of Descartes (76), Gassendi, and Malebranche, sufficiently proclaim the eminent merits of the French in philosophy; but being extremely variable in every thing (77), after the great im-

(75) A very singular indecency is observable in some French writers; they take upon them not to give foreign princes the title of any new-acquired dignity, till the king of France has been pleased to acknowledge it. President Henault himself, in his *New Chronological Abridgment*, calls William III. king of England, only prince of Orange, till the peace of Ryswic; and father D'Avrigny does the like, in his *Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire Universelle de l'Europe*. With the latter, Frederic I. king of Prussia, is only margrave or elector of Brandenburg, till the peace of Utrecht. Did the title of king then not belong to these two princes, though acknowledged by all Europe, till such acknowledgment had been confirmed by Lewis XIV? That their monarch did not give them that title before the said treaties of peace, is nothing unusual. But that an historian, writing thirty, forty, or fifty years after, should term these kings as his sovereign did long before, and when at war with them, is something very strange and absurd.

(76) The author of the *Lettres Germaniques & Françaises*, Lettre XI. sur les Allemands, exceeds in his encomiums on those great men, preferring them to all mathematicians, antient and modern.

(77) *L'inconstance qui nous est naturelle s'étend tous les objets. Les sciences, comme les mœurs, sont parmi nous soumises à l'empire de la mode. i. e. "That inconstancy which is natural to us, extends to every object. Among us, sciences, equally with manners, are subject to the sway of fashion."* Le Blanc, Tom. II. Letter LXII.

provements

provements made in their language, they contracted a taste for the fine arts; so that philosophy was, as it were, turned out of doors. At present, according to the testimony of one of their own literati, a fresh revolution has happened, and a strong attachment to philosophy has almost totally expelled polite literature (*i*). He indeed makes many exceptions against the uses to which they apply their philosophy (*k*): Some, however, incontestibly shew themselves very profound reasoners; and natural philosophy in particular, they have enriched with several new and important discoveries.

S E C T. XLVI.

The nursery of French divines is the Faculty of Divinity at Paris, and especially the Sorbonne (78), in which are dwellings for thirty-six doctors, and six professors daily

(*i*) Le Blanc, Tom. II. Lett. LXII.

(*k*) Tom. III. Letter XC.

(78) A college belonging to the Faculty of Divinity at Paris, founded by Peter Sorbonne, confessor to Lewis IX. and rebuilt with great magnificence by cardinal Richelieu. To this Faculty likewise belong, the college de Navarre, which had for its founder, Joanna, queen of Navarre, consort to Philip IV. The other doctors of that Faculty, who are not members of these colleges, are distinguished by the appellation of Ubiquists. De La Force, Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2. §. 16.

hold lectures (*l*). The Sorbonne has always been a zealous champion for the liberties of the Gallican church (*m*), and had formerly many members of eminent learning and abilities; but at present it seems on the decline.

S E C T. XLVII.

Law.

The French lawyers are celebrated for having first cleared up the Roman law (79), which had been darkened by the absurd glosses of former commentators; and this they performed from its genuine sources, history and antiquity. The writings of Cujas, Hotoman, Duaren, Baudouin, Brisson, Donelle, Geofroy (*n*), and many others, are still esteemed by the lovers of elegant jurisprudence. The more modern French lawyers have applied themselves to the law of nature, some to that of nations, others to the government of France in church and state, and

(*l*) De La Force, Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2. §. 16.

(*m*) Luca Europ. Helicon. Part. III. ch. v.

(79) The Roman law was taught in all French universities; but in the beginning of the thirteenth century, pope Honorius III. interdicted the teaching of it in Paris and the neighbouring places, c. xxviii. X. de Privileg. lest divinity should be neglected. And in this Gonzalez Tellez ad Decretal. B. C. thinks the pope was much in the right. This prohibition lasted about three hundred years, till 1679, when Lewis XIV. restored jurisprudence in the University of Paris. Villaret, Tom. XI, p. 177.

(*n*) Gravina Orig. Jur. Civil. Lib. I. p. 107, 130, 139.

others

others to the common law. Some of the most celebrated works in these kinds are those of Domat, Montesquieu, and De Real.

S E C T. XLVIII.

The kingdom of France appears to ^{Physic} have had colleges for physic so early as the times of Charles the Great (80); but no vestiges of these are to be found under his successors, till the twelfth century; towards the close of which, it was publicly taught at Montpellier (o); being brought out of Spain by the Arabians. The generality of the French physicians, like the Arabians, blended astrology with physic (81); or, rather, laid greater stress on the former than the latter. This superstition, which prevailed universally for a long time, was first exploded out of France, and physic brought to such perfection, that the French physicians, but especially the surgeons, have a greater reputation than those of any other nation in Europe (p). In the year 1731, an

(80) De medicinali arte, ut infantes hanc discere mittantur. Capitular. Caroli, M. a. 805, & 806. in Petr. Georgisch. Corp. Jur. Germ. Ant. p. 693, & 1562.

(o) Villaret, Tom. XI. p. 167.

(81) Charles V. a prince otherwise so judicious, founded a college for physic and astrology, and furnished it with every instrument used in the latter science. Villaret, Tom. XI. p. 119.

(p) Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. ch. xxx.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

academy of surgery was erected at Paris, to which the world is obliged for many valuable writings.

S E C T. XLIX.

Mathematics.

That France has produced so many eminent mathematicians, and that the love of the mathematical sciences is become so general in the nation, is owing to the Paris Academy of Sciences. And as the government itself countenances those sciences, and particularly astronomy; and as all undertakings tending to the farther improvement of them, are supported by royal munificence; the present time in France may justly be called the golden age for mathematics.

S E C T. L.

Libraries in Paris.

In Paris is the chief residence of the arts and sciences in France. The learned are provided with every help requisite to their particular objects; there being in that great city above twenty public libraries (82), besides the many belonging to private persons,

(82) The king's library is the largest, and for number of manuscripts, which many years ago amounted to 16,000, perhaps exceeds all the libraries in Europe. Nemeitz Séjour de Paris, ch. xxiv. §. 1. Charles V. who had collected a considerable number of books, may be looked on as the first founder of this truly royal library. Henault's New Abridgment, Tom. I. p. 325.

most

most of which are very numerous and valuable (q).

S E C T. LI.

The fine arts, and particularly painting, sculpture, and architecture, have attained to a high degree of improvement in France, under the auspices of the crown and ministry, who have taken the best measures for carrying them to all possible perfection. This was one of the celebrated Colbert's principal views; and it was chiefly by his means that the Academy of Painting and Sculpture (83) was erected in 1664, and the Academy of Architecture (84) in 1673: both hold their meetings in the Louvre (r).

Painting,
sculpture,
and archi-
tecture.

Amidst the great reputation of the eminent artists of France, some persons animadvert severely on the depraved taste which has got footing in that kingdom. "The present artists, say they, have departed

(q) Nemeitz *Séjour de Paris*, cap. xxiv.

(83) Lewis XIV. also founded an academy of painting and sculpture at Rome, which is in some measure dependant on that of Paris. De La Force, Tom. II. ch. i.

(84) Concerning the state of painting, sculpture, and architecture, particularly in the preceding century, and the most eminent masters in these arts, see Voltaire's *Age of Lewis XIV.* Tom. II. ch. xxx. He likewise observes, that the art of casting colossian equestrian statues at one operation is best understood in France.

(r) De La Force, Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2. §. 16.

from the noble simplicity of the ancients, and charge their works with a multitude of unnatural decorations; so that by their excesses in this new taste, as it is called, they relapse into the barbarism of the Goths (s).” It is a Frenchman who utters these complaints, and of course they cannot be totally groundless.

S E C T LII.

Engraving
and print-
ing.

Engravers of reputation are likewise admitted into the Academy of Painting and sculpture (t); a circumstance which has not a little contributed to the great improvement of this art in France (85).

The present flourishing state of printing appears in the great number of publications, and some very voluminous and costly. The king's printing-house at Paris, a very stately edifice, was built by cardinal Richlieu, and cost 360,000 livres (u).

(s) Le Blanc, Tom. II. Lettr. XXXVII.

(t) De La Force, Tom. II. p. 69.

(85) Voltaire, Tom. II. ch. xxx. and a German work, called Bibliothek der schonen Wissenschaften und freyen Künste; in which are accounts of the most celebrated modern French engravers and their works.

(u) Henault's Abridgment, Tom. II. p. 651.

S E C T. LIII.

Under the dominion of the Romans, the ^{Laws.} Roman law obtained in Gaul. The foreign nations, as the Visigoths, the Burgundians, the Franks, who afterwards seated themselves in several parts of the country, had their own separate laws, yet left the old inhabitants the quiet use of their former institutions, viz. the Roman (86). Nay, it appears that the kings of those people gave their subjects the option to be regulated, in certain cases, either by their own or the Roman laws (87). And in this intermixture of laws, probably, lies the origin of the various customs in most provinces, and even in most cities in France; all different; and amounting to sixty general, and a hundred and twenty-three particular customs. But these being variously interpreted, and of

I. Ancient
customs.

(86) Alaric II. king of the Visigoths, finding his Gaulish subjects accustomed to the Roman law, caused an extract to be made of the Codex Theodosianus and other Roman books of jurisprudence, under the inspection of Anianus, a counsellor; and this extract was known by the name of Codex Alaricianus, or Breviarium Aniani. Vid. Mascou's Hist. of the Germans.

(87) This may be inferred from a passage in the Burgundian laws; Si quis Barbaros vel testari voluerit vel donare, aut Romanam consuetudinem aut Barbaricam esse servandam sciat, si vult aliquid firmitatis habere quod gesserit. Vid. Lex. Burgundien. Tit. LX. in Georgisch. Corp. Jur. Germ. Ant. p. 382.

course uncertain, the kings of France caused a collection of them to be made and digested in writing (88); and these collections have the force of laws in some provinces; which, on that account, are called *Païs Coutumier*. The greater part of these ancient customs are derived from the Roman law (y).

II. The Roman law.

But the Roman law has farther maintained itself in France, in a twofold manner. First, it is considered as a law of the land in several provinces, as *Guienne*, *Languedoc*, *Provence*, *Dauphiné*, *Bresse*, in part of *Auvergne*, in *Forest*, *Lyonnois*, and *Maconois* (89); which, as such, are termed *Païs du Droit Ecrit*, written-law-countries (z). Secondly, the Roman law is used through the whole kingdom, and in all causes; not as a common law, but only on account of the equity of the laws contained therein, and as an approved model (90).

(88) Charles VII. Charles VIII. Lewis XII. Francis I. and Henry II. Yet under Charles IX. several remained without being digested into writing. *De La Force*, Tom. I. c. xix.

(y) *M. De Real*, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 81.

(89) Thus, if a formal verdict has been given by the courts of justice in these provinces, contrary to the Roman law, the great council may reverse it. *De Real*, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 77.

(z) *De Real*, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 77.

(90) On this account, decrees contrary to the Roman law, given by the upper courts in those provinces where it is not received as a law of the country, are not reverfible by the great council. *De Real*, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 78.

The canon-law, or, rather, only some part thereof, is likewise used in spiritual and ecclesiastical causes (*a*) ; and this with a reserve of containing nothing that may affect the royal prerogative, or the liberties of the Gallican church (91).

III. The
Canon law.

To these foreign laws must be subjoined the royal ordinances, which make the greater part of the French laws. The most ancient of these are the Capitulares of Charles the Great and Lewis the Gracious (92). Since the times of Philip IV. they have been called Ordinances, or, in Latin, Ordinationes. Under Francis I. a distinction was made between ordinances, edicts, and declarations (93), which appellations were after-

IV. The
royal ordi-
nances.

(*a*) De Real, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 78, 79.

(91) The only books of the papal or canon law received in France, and these under the above limitations, are, the Decretales Gregorii IX. the Clementinæ, the Extravagantes Joannis XXII. and the Extravagantes Communes. The Decretum Gratiani is considered only as the work of a private person, and of as little force as the sixth book of the Decretals of pope Boniface VIII. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 1. §. 7. p. 329.

(92) The best edition of them is that of Stephen Baluzius, printed at Paris 1677. It is likewise to be found in Georgisch's Corp. Jur. Germ. Ant. p. 1265.

(93) Ce Prince (François I.) ne se servoit du mot d'ordonnance que dans les matieres generales qui concernent le fait de la justice.—Il se servit du mot d'édit dans les matieres particulieres, qui ne regardent point le fait de la justice.—Il se servoit encore du terme de declaration lors qu'il falloit interpreter le sens ou les termes d'une ordonnance ou d'un édit, ou qu'il falloit y ajouter au corriger quelque chose. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 1. §. 6.

wards retained, though not always of the like import (94).

The king's ordinances, edicts, and declarations, are obligatory throughout the kingdom; but must be previously registered in all the high courts of justice (b).

S E C T. LIV.

Courts of
justice.

Anciently, when most of the lands in France had their particular dukes and counts, these were possessed of the supreme jurisdiction; but by their bad administration, and the successive union of these countries to the crown, the king became the sovereign justiciary, all the upper courts immediately depending on him. But the lower courts, which are distinguished by the appellation of *Prevotés*, *Mairies*, *Chatellanies* and *Judicatures*, still remain in several manors and towns. From these an appeal lies to the district of provincial courts (*Baillages*, *Senechauffées*); and from these, in

(94) Besides several collections of the ordinances and edicts of the kings of France, Lewis XIV. ordered a new code, which was published under the name of *Code Louis*, in twelve volumes quarto. The same prince, likewise, by the advice of his excellent minister Colbert, shortened both civil and criminal processes throughout the whole kingdom; and a collection of the ordinances of Lewis XV. has already appeared.

(b) *De La Force*, Tom. I. ch. xix. p. 326.

certain

certain cases (95), to the upper provincial courts called *Presidiaux* (96), otherwise to the parliaments of the kingdom.

S E C T. LV.

These are twelve, and that of Paris the ^{Parliaments of Paris.} principal: the latter is called the Court of Peers, as this august body, together with the princes of the blood, have a seat and vote in it, and all cases relating to their rank or the rights of their peerage come under its cognizance; and they, as well as the upper clergy (*c*), with the great officers of the crown, are subject to the jurisdiction of the parliament in criminal cases. This assembly likewise has an exclusive cognizance of every thing relating to the regale, the rights of the crown, and the royal demesnes (*d*).

To the parliament of Paris belong thirty-one presidents and two hundred and fourteen counsellors, besides a great number of

(95) If the sum does not exceed two hundred and fifty livres in capital, and ten livres annual produce.

(96) These courts were instituted by Francis I. but they received their present form from Henry II. who founded thirty-two in the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris. *De La Force*, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 1. §. 5.

(*c*) Above, §. 36.

(*d*) *Etat de la France*, Tom. III. ch. iv. art. 1. *De La Force*, Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2. §. 1.

other

other officers; and it is divided into nine chambers (97).

The other
parlia-
ments.

The other parliaments are those of Toulouse, Bourdeaux, Aix, Grenoble, Dijon, Rouen, Rennes, Pau, Metz, Besançon, and Douay (e). To these must be added, the three tribunals at Arras (98), Colmar, and Perpignan (f).

The law in France is, in general, on a very regular and judicious footing, with this exception however, that most of the law employments are bought and sold (99); and that the number of its members is such, as to be a detriment to the state (100).

(97) The first is, La Grande Chambre; five are called Chambres des Enquetes, two des Requetes, and one La Tournelle. To the great chamber belong ten presidents, of whom the first has great privileges, and thirty-two counsellors, of whom twelve are ecclesiastics. Each of the Chambres des Enquetes and des Requetes has three presidents; each of the former twenty-eight counsellors, and of the latter fifteen. In the Tournelle, the five last presidents of the great chamber officiate constantly, and its lay counsellors alternately with the counsellors of the Chambre des Enquetes. There are likewise in the parliament some Conseillers d'Honneur and four Maîtres des Requetes, three advocates-general, and one attorney-general. De La Force, Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2. §. 1. Boulainvilliers, Etat de la France, p. 34.

(e) Ibid. Tom. III. ch. iv. art. 3.

(98) Appeals, however, lie from this court to the parliament of Paris, but not in criminal cases.

(f) Etat de la France, Tom. III. ch. iv. art. 5.

(99) Except the post of chancellor, the first president, and the attorney-general. It was under Francis I. that law employments came to be sold. Henault's New Chronological Abridgment, Tom. II.

(100) Sub Capitingiorum familia exortum est in Franco-Gallia Regnum Rabularium—Dominatur—passim in Gallia

S E C T. LVI.

France, besides the parliaments, has several other high courts of justice, for trying such cases as do not come within the jurisdiction of the parliament. The principal of these is the Great Council, which has nine presidents and fifty-four counsellors, with several other members (1). Its jurisdiction extends over the whole kingdom, and it exercises its prerogative in many causes both spiritual and temporal (2); yet is fre-

The Great Council.

genus hominum, qui Juridici a nonnullis, Pragmatici ab aliis itemque Rabulae appellantur.—Itaque quibus in oppidis illius regni sedes posita sunt, in iis tertia fere civium & incolarum pars—ad illius se artis Rabulariae studium ac disciplinam applicavit:—tantaque hujus morbi vis atque contagio est, ut quemadmodum olim Aegyptiorum bona pars—in pyramidibus & ejusmodi molibus extruendis occupata erat, sic maximus gentis Gallicae numerus in litibus & calumniis exercendis & forensibus scriptitationibus operam consumat. Franc. Hotoman. Franco Gallia, cap. xxvii. p. 212, 213.

(1) The posts of a premier and eight other presidents, created by Lewis XIV. in 1690, have been suppressed by Lewis XV. and replaced by a counsellor of state and eight masters of requests. Henault's New Chronological Abridgment, Tom. I. The chancellor is president of the Great Council. Etat de la France, Tom. III. ch. i. art. 7.

(2) Les procès de competence entre deux parlemens se jugent par le conseil.—Lorsque les parlemens, jugent contre les loix, leurs arrêts peuvent être cassés par le conseil. “Processes of competency between two parliaments are tried by the council. Decrees given by parliaments may be reversed by the council.” Annal. Polit. de St. Pierre, Part. I. p. 35. For other causes appertaining to the jurisdiction of the Great Council, see Etat de la France, Tom. III. ch. i. art. 7.

quently

quently opposed by the parliaments, and particularly that of Paris.

Chambers
of Accounts,
Courts of
Aids and
Coinage.

Next to the Great Council, the Chambers of Accounts (3), and the Courts of Aids (4) and Coinage (5), are reckoned among the high courts (6).

S E C T. LVII.

Military
state of
France.

The body-guards of the kings of France were formerly their only standing troops. The first alteration in this point was under Charles VII. though the number of men he kept on foot was but inconsiderable (7).

(3) *Chambres des Comptes*; of these there are eleven; that of Paris is the principal, and has many considerable privileges: there it is that the oath of fealty taken by the archbishop, bishops, and abbots, is registered. It receives the homage of the king's vassals for the great fiefs, as principalities, duchies, marquises, counties, and baronies. In this chamber are likewise recorded all declarations of war, treaties of peace, and marriage contracts of the king and the royal children. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 2. §. 7. Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2. §. 3.

(4) *Cours des Aids*; these are nine, and Paris, as of all others, the principal. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 2. §. 7.

(5) *Cours des Monnoyes*; these are three, Paris, Lyons, and Pau. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 2. and Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2.

(6) Likewise the High-Forest Court (*la Jurisdiction des Eaux & Forêts*). De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 2. §. 7. and Tom. II. ch. i. art. ii. §. 7.

(7) When Charles VII. in the year 1444 dismissed his army, he retained fifteen hundred *hommes d'armes*, or heavy-armed troopers, together with as many *coustilliers*, or foot-soldiers, who attended on the troopers, and three thousand bow-men. These troops were called *Compagnies d'Ordonnance*. Afterwards, in 1448, he issued a proclamation, that

Francis

Francis I. made great additions to the infantry (8), which was still farther increased under the succeeding kings, but most under Lewis XIV. (9), who introduced many new regulations (10), which other countries have imitated. Thus the military establishment throughout Europe made quite a new and much better appearance, with great improvement in exercise and discipline.

S E C T. LVIII.

The French have several regiments of foreigners in their service, as Germans, Swifs, Irish (11), &c. The king's guards, or, as

Division
and number
of the
troops.

every village in the kingdom should maintain a foot bowman, which amounted to twenty-two or twenty-three thousand men; and these being exempt from all taxes and duties, were called Francs Archers. Mezeray, Tom. II. Lewis XI. however, disbanded them, and took Swifs troops into his pay, as did Lewis XII. Germans. Henault, Tom. I.

(8) He divided it into seven legions, each consisting of six thousand men, and commanded by six captains, the eldest of whom had the title of Colonel. But this establishment was of no long continuance. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 3. Henault's Chronological Abridgment, Tom. I.

(9) In the year 1672, the number of men actually in his pay, amounted to 180,000; and in the succeeding wars, which he maintained against half Europe, his military force, the navy included, was very little short of 450,000. Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. ch. xxxvii.

(10) Such as the uniform of regiments, the company of grenadiers, and the use of bayonets. Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. ch. xxxvii.

(11) The latter at present are little more than nominal. The British government having prohibited the Irish Roman Catholics from going into foreign service, the French cannot recruit their Irish regiments with natives of Ireland.

they

they are generally called, the King's Household, are the principal and best part of the king's forces (12). The establishment of these was likewise owing to Lewis XIV. and the whole body consists of 12,000 men.

C A V A L R Y.

1. Four troops of life-guards.
2. One troop of Gens d'armes de la Garde.
3. One troop of light-horse-guards.
4. One troop of grey musqueteers.
5. One troop of black musqueteers.
6. One troop of horse-grenadiers (13.

The I N F A N T R Y of the King's Household are,

1. One hundred Swiss, called Gardes du Corps Ordinaires.
2. Gardes de la Porte.
3. The company de la Prevoté de l'Hôtel (14).

(12) They are likewise of all the king's troops the most ancient. King Philip II. when in Palestine, first instituted a life-guard, under the name of Sergens d'Armes. These were all gentlemen, and besides a bow and arrow, carried a metal bludgeon. Velly, Tom. III. p. 252.

(13) A description of these several troops, together with the highest elogiums of them, is to be found in M. Mauvillon's Lettres Françaises & Germaniques, Lettr. VIII. sur les François.

(14) These, together with the Gardes de la Porte, the hundred Swiss, Gardes du Corps Ordinaires, and the four

4. The regiment of French guards, consisting of six battalions ; and
5. The regiment of Swiss guards, consisting of four battalions (g).

The other French troops are not always alike, being augmented in war, and reduced in peace. The following list is of the year 1722, when France was at peace ; and at that time the cavalry consisted of

129 Squadrons of French horse, of which the Gens d'Armerie de France makes the principal part (15).

8 Squadrons of foreign horse.

32 Squadrons of dragoons.

5 Squadrons of light-horse.

8 Squadrons of hussars ; making altogether 20,920 men.

The Infantry were,

172 Battalions of French ; in the whole 90,360 men.

59 Battalions of Germans, Swiss, and other foreigners ; in the whole 26,789. And

Light infantry 1140 men.

troops of life-guards, are called Gardes du dedans du Louvre ; but the other household troops, Gardes du dehors du Louvre. Etat de la France, Tom. I. ch. v. p. 381.

(g) Etat de la France, Tom. I. ch. v. Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 3.

(15) The Gens d'Armerie is divided into sixteen troops, the first of which are called Gens d'Armes Ecoffois, and

To

To the artillery belong 4,100 men, and 300 engineers.

All these troops, the life-guards included, were computed at 157,055 men (*b*).

France, besides these bodies, has a numerous militia, which in 1753, consisted of 110 battalions, each of 500 men; but in 1756 they were greatly augmented. The Grenadiers Royaux, as they are called, who make eleven battalions, and serve in the field like regulars, are the principal part of the militia (16).

S E C T. LIX.

High military employ-
ments.

The commander in chief was anciently the constable (17); but this dignity being abrogated in 1627, the marshals of France

take place of the Musqueteers. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 3.

(*b*) Archenwall's Constitution of European states (a German work), ch. iii. §. 65.

(16) Among the military may likewise be reckoned, 1. The guards of the governors and lieutenant-generals of provinces, which make seven troops and companies; some being horse and some foot. 2. The companies of the Connetable and Marechaussées de France. 3. Thirty-one companies of the Marechaussées des Provinces. 4. The companies of the Prevôt General d'Isle de France; and 5. The Invalids. The latter are reckoned at between seven and eight thousand, and the former at six thousand. Archenwall, ch. iii.

(17) He was the first officer of the crown. See §. 29. Indeed it was his great power and other privileges which induced Lewis XIII. to suppress this office. Etat de la France, Tom. II. ch. xiii. and De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. iii.

are

are the highest officers in the French armies (18); and sometimes the king, as a reward of singular merit, is pleased to confer on one of them the title of marshal-general (19), which gives him the precedence of the others. Next to the marshals are the lieutenant-generals (20); and after these, the Marshals de Camp (21). Immediately under these are the brigadiers (22); then the Mestres de Camp in the horse,

(18) The marshals of France are likewise great officers of the crown. See §. 29. And since the abolishment of the post of constable, their authority is greatly encreased. The eldest marshal represents the constable, and can bear the constable's sword and marshal's staff as supporters to his arms. The constable's military court (*Jurisdiction à la Table de Marble*) is continued to the marshals, under the title of the *Connetablie & Marechaussée de France*. But they have likewise another court, held by the eldest marshal, for taking cognizance of disputes on points of honour between noblemen and officers; and without appeal: whereas, from those of the *Connetablie* and *Marechaussée*, an appeal lies to the parliament of Paris. *Etat de la France*, Tom. II. ch. xiii. *De La Force*, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 3. and Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2. §. 8.

(19) The marshals Biron, Lesdiguières, Turenne, Villars, and count Saxe, were honoured with this title. *Henault*, Tom. II. p. 716. who adds, It must be observed, that in the marshal-general's commission, nothing is said of his having any command over the other marshals of France.

(20) This post first came into use in 1633, under Lewis XIII. *Henault*, Tom. II. p. 624.

(21) These were first nominated under Francis I. but only for a limited time. Henry IV. gave them commissions for life; and they were the chief officers next to the marshals of France. *Henault*, Tom. I. p. 457.

(22) Lewis XIV. in 1667, made the first brigadiers, who were for the horse; and in 1668, appointed such officers for the dragoons and infantry. *Henault*, Tom. II. p. 735.

and the colonels in the foot (23). The cavalry has farther some particular officers, as colonel-general, Mestre de Camp General, and a Commissaire-General. In like manner, the dragoons have a colonel-general, and a Mestre de Camp General; and over the Swiss (regiments) is a colonel-general (24).

The artillery-men are under the command of the grand master of the artillery, who is always colonel of the royal regiment of artillery and bombardiers (25). The engineers are subordinate to the surveyor of the fortifications (26).

Besides all these, there are several other considerable officers in the French armies; and tho' they cannot be properly said to have any share in the command of the troops, yet are their employments calcu-

(23) The colonels of foot had likewise the title of Mestre de Camp, till Lewis XIV. altered it into colonel. De La Force, Tom. I. c. xx.

(24) There was formerly a colonel-general of the French infantry, but that employment was abolished by Lewis XIV. in 1661. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx.

(25) He is likewise one of the great officers of the crown. See § 29. His privileges, and the officers dependant on him, are to be seen in *Etat de la France*, Tom. II. ch. xxiv. and De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx.

(26) The French engineers are divided into four classes; 1. *Ingenieurs Directeurs*; 2. *Ingenieurs en Chef*; 3. *Ingenieurs en Seconde*; and 4. *Subalternes*. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. p. 432.

lated for the better maintenance of regularity and order (27).

SECT. LX.

No state in Europe equals France for number and strength of fortified places. It is well secured on all sides; and surrounded by no less than one hundred and twenty strong fortifications (28). This not only makes it extremely difficult for an enemy to carry the war into France with any success, but enables this crown to penetrate into the neighbouring territories, and render them the theatre of war. Of this the two wars for the Spanish and Austrian succession were signal instances.

Fortifications.

SECT. LXI.

If excellent methods and institutions for encouraging the profession of a soldier, and promoting the sciences appertaining to war,

Institutions for encouraging the soldiery, and promoting military knowledge.

(27) Among these are the Marechaux-Generaux des Logis, the Inspecteurs-Generaux of the horse-dragoons and foot, the intendant of the army, and the commissaries. Concerning all these see Memoires de Feuquieres, Tom. I. ch. xii. xiii. xiv. xviii. xix. xx.

(28) The French are very sensible of the use of fortresses, there being from Brabant to Dauphiné, as it were, a double chain of fortified places. The frontier of France towards Germany is like an open-mouthed lion, with two rows of threatening teeth, as if it could tear every thing in its way to pieces. Antimachiavel, Tom. II. ch. xx.

are to be found any where, it is certainly in France. Officers of all ranks are rewarded in a manner suitable to their merits ; some with governments, some with pensions, and some with incomes annexed to the orders of knighthood ; and the worn-out or disabled are comfortably maintained in the Invalids at Paris (29), and several other hospitals.

There are many schools in the kingdom for learning gunnery and military architecture (30) ; and Lewis XV. has founded two large military schools, or universities, for officers (31).

S E C T. LXII.

Marine.

Though the situation of France be so convenient for navigation, yet it is but of late

(29) Concerning the Hotel Royal des Invalids, founded by Lewis XIV. at a vast expence, the abbé de St. Pierre, far from speaking of it so magnificently as other French writers, says (*Annal. Polit. Part. I. p. 249.*), Ce projet a plus d'eclat que de solidité : car il en coûte à la nation trois cent livres par soldat, pour les nourrir & entretenir à Paris ; au lieu qu'en donnant cent livres à chacun d'eux dans leurs villages, ils se trouveroient beaucoup plus heureux : & au lieu de deux milles invalides le Roi avec le même fonds en pourroit entretenir fix mille. Il ne devoit y avoir à Paris que des Parisiens, & un bureau pour faire payer les soldats dans les provinces & pour en avoir les listes & les controles.

(30) The artillery schools are fix ; at La Ferre, Auxonne, Grenoble, Besançon, Metz, and Strasburg ; and Mezieres has a seminary for engineering.

(31) One was erected at Paris in 1751, and the other at La Fleche, formerly a jesuits college.

that it has made any great figure at sea. Cardinal Richlieu well understood the advantages of a naval force (i); yet was little done towards its increase under his administration. But Lewis XIV. having a large army, was likewise for having a considerable fleet; and one of his first steps, after his assuming the government, was to repair the old ships, which lay half rotten in the harbour, and to purchase new ones in Holland and Sweden. Accordingly, so early as 1667, he saw himself master of sixty men of war, which were encreased with such expedition, that in 1681 he had a navy of a hundred and eighteen ships of war (32). Charles II. king of England, in whom so speedy an increase of the French marine should have created some jealousy,

(i) See cardinal de Richlieu's Political Will, Part. II. ch. ix. §. 5.

(32) Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. According to a list of father Daniel's (*Hist. de la Milice Françoise*, Livr. XIV. ch. vi.), quoted in Campbell's *Lives of British Admirals*, Part II. p. 4, the French navy in the year 1681 consisted of a hundred and seventy-nine ships, great and small, carrying 7080 guns, 1028 officers, 7955 petty officers, 26,618 seamen, and 10,904 marines; and thus in the whole, 39,477 men. Yet at the beginning of the war previous to the peace of Ryfwic, it was considerably augmented; and so elevated was Lewis XIV. with his naval power, that in 1680, he issued orders for compelling the Spaniards every where to strike to his men of war; which overbearing conduct M. Voltaire considers as a consequence of Spain's having, in the year 1662, as he says, solemnly yielded the precedence to the crown of France. Voltaire, *ibid.* Tom. II. ch. xxxvii. Henault, Tom. II. p. 777.

not only shewed himself indifferent about it, but rather promoted the French measures (*k*). But the potent Lewis, who had given existence to his naval force, saw likewise its period, or at least its declension (33). After his demise, the prodigious debts he left behind him, would not for many years admit of repairing the navy; and it was not till the war for the Austrian succession that a French fleet shewed itself at sea: but a great part of it was taken or destroyed by the English (34). After the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, the court made the revival of the marine a capital business; and this was carried on with such vigour, that, at the breaking out of a new war with England in the year 1755, the French navy was computed at a hundred sail; but with no better fortune than in the

(*k*) Rapin's History of England, translated by Tindal, Vol. XI. p. 669.

(33) In the war from 1688 to 1697, the French lost 59 ships of war, and 2244 guns; and in the war for the Spanish succession, 52 men of war, and 3094 guns. Campbell's Lives of British admirals, Vol. II. p. 134, 437. After the action off Malaga in 1704, no considerable French fleet appeared at sea; but most of the ships were laid up in Toulon and other harbours.

(34) In the year 1747, admiral Anson, in an engagement with a French squadron off Cape Finisterre, took nine men of war; and admiral Hawke, in an action farther to the westward of the same Cape, made himself master of six ships more. Tindal's Continuation of Rapin's History of England, Vol. IX. p. 320, 322.

former

former war (35). At present the repair of the navy is carried on more vigorously than ever. France formerly kept thirty gallies in the Mediterranean; but since the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, they have been reduced to ten; and at present, a smaller sort of ships called xebèques are made use of instead of them.

S E C T. LXIII.

The troops, matrosses, and other military men belonging to the marine, amount to a considerable number; the first and principal of which are,

Naval
troops.

1. Three companies of Gardes de la Marine; and
2. One company of Gardes du Pavillon Amiral (36). The other troops consist of
3. One hundred compagnies Franches de la Marine (37). And
4. Three companies of marine artillery.

(35) According to a list published by the English, France, in the last war, lost no less than one hundred ships of different rates.

(36) These four companies consist entirely of gentlemen, instructed in all sciences relative to the sea-service, at the king's expence; and the posts of ensigns on board the men of war are filled up out of their corps. *Etat de la France*, Tom. II. ch. xv. *De La Force*, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 4.

(37) These companies serve as soldiers in the king's ships, and are commanded by the lieutenants of the several men of war.

All these troops are kept in constant pay, the common matrosses excepted; whom the king takes into his service only as he wants them (38).

Among the sea-establishments may likewise be classed the companies of Gardes Cotes (39), though they only serve by land.

S E C T. LXIV.

Principal
officer of the
navy.

The principal officer of the navy is the Admiral of France, who is likewise one of the great officers of the crown (1). Lewis XIII. in 1627, suppressed this dignity, replacing it with another, under the title of Grand Maître, Chef & Surintendant-General de la Navigation & Commerce de France; which cardinal Richlieu obtained for him-

Formerly the complement of each was a hundred men, but at present they are reduced to half the number. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 4.

(38) That the king may never want seamen, all who follow a sea life in the maritime provinces are registered, and regular lists kept of them. They are divided into certain classes, serving alternately between three and four years; and they who are not entirely in the king's service, may in the mean time employ themselves in trading vessels. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx.

(39) These, in reality, are only a militia, which, in time of war, when a descent is apprehended, must do duty along the coast. Lewis XIV. made a great change in their constitution, and put them on a regular footing. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx.

(1) See above, §. 29.

self

self (*m*). But Lewis XIV. in 1669 revoked it, and restored the post of admiral in favour of his natural son, the duke de Vermandois; and after his death, or disgrace, conferred it on the count de Toulouse, another of his natural sons (*n*). Formerly the admiral nominated the officers of the fleet and other naval placemen; but Lewis XIV. retained this for the crown, yet leaving the admiral many privileges, of which some are very considerable and lucrative (40).

The other principal commanders of the fleet are, two vice-admirals (41), four or five lieutenant-generals of the marine, several commodores (42), and next to these are the captains of men of war (*o*).

To the naval establishment likewise belong several intendants, Inspecteurs & Tréso-

(*m*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 4.

(*n*) Henault, Tom. II. p. 738.

(40) The high-court of Admiralty at Paris, as likewise all the other courts of admiralty in the kingdom, of which there are fifty, but all with appeal to the high court, are held in his name. One-tenth of all prizes, together with fines in the courts of admiralty, belong to him, except those in the high-court, where they are divided between him and the king. See *Etat de la France*, Tom. II. ch. xv. and *De La Force*, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 4. and Tom. II. ch. i. art. 2.

(41) One called Vice-Admiral du Ponant, of the Western Ocean, and the other du Levant, of the Mediterranean or East.

(42) Chefs d'Escadre.

(*o*) De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 4.

riers Generaux, a great number of Commissaires de la Marine, with other inferior placemen (p).

S E C T. LXV.

Sea-ports
and maga-
sines,

The king's ships, when in harbour, lie at Toulon, Brest, Port Louis, Rochfort (43), and Havre-de-Grace; each of which has a dock and store-houses (q). Dunkirk was likewise a port of great importance, till the peace of Utrecht (44).

Ship-timber, and other naval stores, France produces of itself; but with iron and copper it is chiefly supplied from the North.

Old and worn-out seamen are provided for in hospitals, or otherwise taken care of (r).

(p) Concerning all these, see De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. art. 4.

(43) This port was made in the time of Lewis XIV. by Colbert's advice; and it is said to have cost twenty millions of livres. The abbé de St. Pierre, however, finds great fault with it. See Annal Polit. Part. I. p. 292, 293.

(q) De La Force, *ibid.*

(44) This harbour is most conveniently situated for cruising on ships coming up the Channel, and in the North Sea; and in the former wars the French men of war and privateers from this port, did inexpressible damage to the English and Dutch trade; so that, at the peace of Utrecht, Great-Britain insisted on the filling up the harbour and razing the fortifications; which was again stipulated at the two several treaties of Aix-la-Chapelle and Paris. See De Real, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 25.

(r) De La Force, Tom. I. p. 459.

S E C T.

S E C T. LXVI.

The French reckon by livres, sous, and ^{coins,} deniers. The livre is divided into twenty sous, and each sou into twelve deniers. This way of reckoning was used so early as under Charles the Great (45), and a livre or pound was, at that time, a real pound of pure silver (†). But such alterations have been made in the standard of money, that the livre is extremely sunk from its ancient value, though still retaining the name, and the ancient division (46). For the marc

(45) It appears from the laws of this emperor, that in his time they reckoned by libra, solidi, and denarii (from which are derived the French names of livre, sol or sou, and denier), and that a libra was worth twenty solidi, and one solidus twelve denarii. See Capitularia Caroli Magni & Ludovici Pii, Lib. III. cap. xiv. and xxx. in Georgisch. Corp. Jur. Germ. Ant. col. 1349, 1354.

(†) See Melon's lesser works, p. 156.

(46) I shall here briefly shew how the standard has gradually altered in France, and the value of money been raised. The first alteration was under Philip I. who added to the deniers an alloy of a third part of copper. Afterwards the marcs of silver came to be coined

Under Philip I. at 12 Livr. 10 Sous.

— Philip IV. 5 — — — and at last

— Philip IV. 8 Livr. — Sous.

(Boulainvilliers, Hist. de l'ancien Gouvernem. de la France, Tom. II. p. 97, 80.) Liv. Sous. Den.

Under Charles VII. — 8 — 14 — 8

— Lewis XI. — 9 — 5 — 1

— Charles VIII. — 11 — — —

— Lewis XII. — 12 — 1 — 8

— Francis I. — 13 — 15 — 3

— Henry II. — 14 — 11 — 8

— Charles IX. — 16 — 7 — 6

— Henry III. — 18 — 11 — 8

— Lewis XIV. — 28 — —

— Lewis XV. — 49 — 16 —

of

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

of silver, though but two-thirds of an old livre or pound, in the present coinage makes 49 livres 16 sous. The value of a livre is about ten English pence.

The current coins of France are :

1. In GOLD :

Louis d'or, value 24 livres

Double - - - 48 —

Half - - - 12 —

2. In SILVER :

Ecus, value 3 livres

Double - 6 — And

Pieces of 24 and 12 sous. Besides these there are in Billon, that is, silver with a large mixture of copper, pieces of 2 sous and $1\frac{1}{2}$.

3. In COPPER.

Pieces of 1 sou, of 6 deniers, and 3 deniers, the last of which are called liards.

This last standard began in 1726, and has continued hitherto without alteration. The present proportion between gold and silver in France, is as 1 to $14\frac{1}{2}$; and the marc of the former, which under Charles V. made only 63 livres, at present is in coinage raised to 720. M. D'Eon de Beaumont, Tom. I. p. 68. Tom. II. p. 93.

In France thirty cities have the privilege of a mint; and these are known by certain marks on the coins (47).

S E C T. LXVII.

The incomes of the last Carlovingian ^{Finances,} kings, and the first of the Capetians, were very small, most of the provinces having, at that time, their particular sovereigns, who held them as fiefs. These gradually escheating to the crown, the royal revenues encreased, yet not to any formidable greatness (48), as no tax could be imposed with-

(47) These marks are as follow:

A. Paris	Q. Chalons, now Narbonne
B. Rouen	R. St. André, now Moulin
C. St. Lo	S. Troyes, now Rheims
D. Lyons	T. St. Menchoud, now Nantz
E. Tours	U. Amiens
F. Angers	X. Ville Franche, now Aix
G. Poitiers	Y. Bourges
H. Rochelle	Z. Grenoble
I. Limoges	3. Provence
K. Bourdeaux	c. Bretagne
L. Bayonne	†. Caen
M. Toulouse	AA. Marseilles
N. Montpellier	AR. Arras
O. St. Pourcin, now Riom	L. with a crown, Lisle
P. Dijon	S. with a crown, Troyes

(48) The annual income of Philip II. did not exceed 36,000 marcs of silver; which, reckoning the marc at 2 livres 10 sols, make 90,000 livres. Philip IV. had 80,000 marcs per annum; and the marc of silver being 5 livres in coinage, these 80,000 marcs made 400,000 livres. But the king afterwards raised the marc of silver to 8 livres, which increased his yearly revenue to 640,000 livres. Boulainvilliers, Hist. de l'ancien Gouvernement. de la France, Tom. II. p. 79, 80.

out

out the consent of the states. But the kings found means in time to free themselves from this clog, and then their incomes became enormous. They imposed taxes at pleasure (49), which, indeed, after the alienation of the greater part of the demesne (50), were almost the only sources of the king's revenue, and from reign to reign have been always registered (51); till both the persons and possessions of the subjects are overloaded with duties, contributions, and imposts. This was particularly done under Lewis XIV. when the revenue, which, in the time of Lewis XIII. amounted to eighty millions of livres (52), was raised to above two hundred millions (53); and at present

(49) Charles VII. annually levied taxes to the amount of 1,800,000 livres; but Lewis XI. who first begun to reign with an unlimited prerogative, stretched them to 4,700,000 livres. Comines, Book V. chap. xviii.

(50) Most of these alienations were made under Lewis XI. Lewis XII. and Henry II. Beaumont, Mem. Tom. I. p. 81, 84, 89.

(51) Under Francis I. the taxes amounted to 4,044,115, and under Henry II. to 12,098,563. Under Henry III. they rose to above thirty millions. The edicts *Bursaux*, or money-edicts, became numberless; and such was the inselence and profligacy of his favourites, that they gave their tradesmen assignments on those edicts. Beaumont, Tom. I. p. 88, 91, 95, 96.

(52) So they are reckoned in the Testament. Polit. du Cardinal Richelieu, Part. II. ch. ix. §. 7. The taxes alone exceeded 45 millions.

(53) The ordinary revenue of Lewis XIV. in Colbert's time, amounted only to 117 millions, 27 livres the marc. Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. ch. xxviii. But including the extraordinary, the total exceeded 200 millions.

it is computed to be three hundred millions (54), which far exceeds that of any state in Europe. Thus the people are universally exhausted by the multitude of taxes, as the strong and pathetic representations laid before the king in the two last wars, by the parliaments of Paris and Rouen, clearly evince.

S E C T. LXVIII.

The king's revenues are either ordinary or extraordinary. The former arise,

Different
branches of
the revenue.

1. From the demesnes; by which, in France, are understood, not only the crown lands, properly so called, but likewise the regalia (u). The demesne revenues are, in this sense, either settled or casual. To the former belong:

(a) The farming of the crown lands; of which, however, few are now remaining.

(b) Taxes on imports and exports.

(c) The postage.

(d) The coinage.

(e) The sale of timber in the king's forests, likewise the hunts and fisheries.

(f) The West-India demesnes.

(54) These 300 millions, however, are, in effect, not so much as the 200 millions under Lewis XIV. by reason of the lesser value of the present money.

(u) Boulainvilliers, Etat de la France, Tom. I. p. 48.

Among the latter may be placed the regale, the effects of foreigners dying in France (55), estates without heirs, patents of nobility (56), fines, confiscations, &c. (57).

The other incomes consist in the various subsidies and duties, of which the principal are :

2. The land-tax, payable by all grounds, farms, and houses (58); the profit and handicraft tax, payable by all shopkeepers, artificers, and common workmen, out of their gains and earnings (59).

(55) Foreigners cannot bequeath by will what effects they may be possessed of in France, they being an escheat to the king, called *Droit d'Aubaine*. Heineceius in *Elem. Jur. Germ. Lib. I. §. 428, 431*. From this, however, are exempt, merchants coming to Lyons fair, and other trading places; likewise some particular nations by compact. Bodinus de *Republ. Lib. I. ch. vi*.

(56) A patent of nobility costs 250 marcs of silver. *Annal. Polit. de St. Pierre, Part. I. p. 227*. In the year 1696, the price of a patent for nobility was 2000 dollars, and the number of purchasers five hundred. *Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. ch. xxviii*.

(57) To these appertain many other articles, a list of which may be seen in *Boulainvilliers Etat de la France, Tom. I. p. 98*.

(58) *La Taille*. This was demanded by Lewis IX. first on occasion of his *croisade*, and as an extraordinary impost. Under Charles VII. it was made an ordinary tax, sometimes higher, sometimes lower: but it has of late been very much increased; and Henry II. tacked to it the *Taillon*, or tax on changing habitation and removing one's effects. *De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix*. This *Taillon*, with other subsidies levied in time of war, amounts to near three-fourths of the ordinary taxes. *Boulain. p. 52*.

(59) *Taille d'Industrie*. It is also called *Vintieme* or *Dixieme d'Industrie*, according as the 20th or 10th penny of

5. The

3. The poll-tax, levied on persons of all ranks (60).

4. Excise on wine and other liquors, and provisions (61).

5. The salt-tax, or rather, the monopoly of salt, which is sold to the subject, but not every where, at the same price (62).

a man's profits and earnings is to be levied, and at present is joined to the Taille. Achenwall's Constitution of the European States, written in German.

(60) La Capitation, first imposed by Lewis XIV. in 1695. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. Boulainvilliers, Tom. I. p. 54.

(61) Les Aides was granted as an extraordinary subsidy to king John, but Charles VII. made it a settled tax. De La Force, Tom. I. chap. xix. Boulainvilliers, Tom. I. p. 49.

(62) Philip V. first laid an impost on salt, which was called La Gabelle; and Philip VI. assumed the monopoly of it; which gave occasion to the jest put upon him by Edward III. king of England during their contests, calling him Autor Legis Salicæ. The price of salt has been raised to such a pitch, that it now makes one of the most considerable branches of the revenue, and is said to bring in as much as all the Spanish possessions in America. Henault's New Chronological Abridgment, Vol. I. p. 295. Salt, however, does not bear the same price in all provinces, some are entirely exempt from the tax; and France was, accordingly, by an edict of 1680, divided into Pais des Grandes Gabelles, des Petites Gabelles, and Exempt des Gabelles. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 2. This salt monopoly, however, is a heavy oppression on the people, by the many abuses and frauds committed in it. Mezeray, the historian, in the first edition of his History of France, Tom. II. p. 544, has the following remark on the salt-tax: "Cet impost, qui fait vendre si cher l'eau & le soleil, est de l'invention des Juifs, ennemis mortels du nom Chrétien, comme le montre le mot de Gabelle qui vient de l'Hebreu." "This impost, which makes water and the sun come so dear to us, is an invention of the Jews, who cannot bear any thing that is Christian, as the word Gabelle, of Hebrew origin, evidently shews." For

6. The tobacco monopoly.
7. The exclusive sale of gunpowder and ball (63).
8. Stamp paper.
9. The tenths, and free-will gifts of the clergy (64).
10. The yearly tax of hereditary posts (65).

this passage, and some other such causes, Colbert took away the author's pension of 4000 livres per annum. Mezeray's Life, p. 36.

(63) This was first farmed out by Lewis XIV. in the year 1691; and the price fixed on powder and ball has afforded considerable profit to the farmers. Boulainvilliers, *Etat de la France*, Tom. I. p. 31.

(64) Concerning this see § 37.

(65) Lewis XII. was the first who sold the financial employments; but this he did with a good view, that he might not be under a necessity of saddling the people with new taxes. Francis I. did the like with the law employments: but it was under Henry II. that this custom first came to be established; for by an edict of 1554, he prescribed a certain form to this kind of traffic; and from that time, not only law employments, but even places at court, and for both sexes, and even some military employments, have been made saleable: though Lewis XV. endeavours gradually to put a stop to the sale of the latter. Henault's *New Chronological Abridgment*, Tom. II. Lastly, Henry IV. by the advice of the duke de Sully, as comptroller-general of the finances, made employments hereditary, in consideration of annually paying the sixtieth penny of their produce. This deduction was called *La Paulette*, from Charles Paulet, the first farmer of it. This historian exclaims against it with great vehemence, as an infamous abuse; but at present it is rather much approved of; and the hereditary succession to employments is considered as an advantage both to families and the state. D'Eon de Beaumont, *Mem. sur les Finances*, Tom. I. p. 103. This hereditary succession to employments has given rise to two new classes among the French, *La Robe* and *La Finance*.

The extraordinary incomes are still less determinable than the ordinary, as depending solely on the will of the sovereign, who can lay on as many new taxes as he pleases: among these, however, are reckoned:

II. Extraordinary.

1. The heightening of the taxes and other subsidies.

2. The twentieth or tenth penny of the produce of all lands in the kingdom.

3. The twentieth or tenth penny, payable out of their incomes, profits, or gains, by all towns, merchants, tradesmen, manufacturers, artificers, &c. who are by charters exempted from the ordinary taxes (66).

4. The grant of new privileges.

5. Claims on the possessors of alienated domains (67), or the sale of them to the highest bidder.

S E C T. LXIX.

But in urgent exigences, and particularly in times of war, if the ordinary and extraordinary revenues do not answer the public expences, the ministry has recourse to some

(66) This twentieth penny has gradually been so increased, that in the last war it was paid three times after the year 1758.

(67) The domains are inalienable; and if, in an extreme necessity, they are sold, it is always with a power of redemption.

very singular measures for providing money; particularly in Lewis the XIVth's time (*x*), many schemes were put in execution for that purpose. Among the most remarkable are the following:

1. The sale of annuities, payable out of some branches of the revenue.
2. Lotteries and annuities for life (68).
3. The institution and sale of new employments, the salary of which is received in lieu of interest (69).
4. Raising the prices of employments, with an addition of salary in lieu of interest, or the sale of yearly pensions.
5. Advancements made by farmers-general for a year or more.
6. Raising the coin (70).
7. Bringing financiers of overgrown fortunes to account (71).

(*x*) Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. ch. xxviii.

(68) Within these thirty years that kind of annuities for life called Tontines have been greatly used in France. See Susmilch's Display of the Divine Oeconomy, &c. Vol. II. ch. xxiii.

(69) This way was frequently made use of in Lewis the XIVth's time, for raising large sums of money; but many of these new employments being quite superfluous and unnecessary, the purchase money could only be looked on as loans, and the salaries of them as interest.

(70) This expedient was formerly very usual in France, but since 1726 has been discontinued.

(71) This has been very often done by what is called *Chambre de Justice*, or *Chambre Ardente*, so that the financiers have been obliged to refund no small part of their ill-gotten

S E C T. LXX.

The king's revenues are not levied in the same manner all over the kingdom; some, Manner of levying the revenue. as the crown lands, the customs, the postage, the West-India domains, the excise, the salt tax, the tobacco, the stamps, are farmed to a company called Farmers-General (72). These hold their meetings in the custom-house at Paris, and in order to prevent any malversation, have, besides sub-farmers and receivers, an infinite number of other officers.

The other imposts are levied and accounted for by the king's officers of the revenue; and for the greater regularity, the kingdom is divided into thirty-two financial provinces, called Generalities (73); some distinguished by the name of *Pais d'Etats*,

riches. The last *Chambre Ardente* was that erected in 1716, by Philip duke of Orleans, regent of the kingdom; and it brought some hundred millions into the royal coffers. See *Mem. de la Regence du duc d'Orleans*, Tom. I. p. 105.

(72) *Fermiers-Generaux*; their contract is called *Bail General*, or *Ferme Unie*, and is renewed every six years. The farmers-general have, since the year 1755, been increased from forty to sixty.

(73) *Generalité* properly signifies a treasurer-general's department. *De La Force*, Tom. I. chap. xix. art. 2. And the taxes being in some provinces under the sole management of the intendants, these are called *Intendances*; such are *Roussillon*, *Metz*, *Alsace*, *Lorraine*, *Hainault*, *Flanders*.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

others termed *Païs d'Élection*. The former are those where the states of the province have some privileges relatively to the taxes; as compounding with the king for a certain sum of money; and this under the title of a Free-Gift: and they themselves make the assessments and levy the money (74). By the latter are understood, those Generalities from which the king annually demands certain sums, and causes the assessments on the inhabitants to be made (75) and levied by the treasurer, intendants, and other officers (76). These generalities are subdivided into several smaller districts, called Elections; and Elections again into parishes; each containing a certain number of houses.

The principal officer of the finances was formerly the *Surintendant des Finances*; but since the suppression of this post in 1661,

(74) The *Païs d'États* are Burgundy, Brittany, Languedoc, Provence, Artois, Foix, Bearn, Neboufan, with some other territories. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix.

(75) In every Generalité there is a *Bureau de Trésoriers de France*, i. e. a treasurer's office, with an intendant, who is to take care of the king's interest, and, at the same time, that the subject be not aggrieved; and under him are several receivers and deputy receivers. De La Force, Tom. I. ch. xix. art. 2.

(76) These are attended with very arbitrary and iniquitous doings, to the extreme oppression of the farmer and others. *Annal. Polit. de St. Pierre*, Part. I.

the

the Controleur General des Finances is invested with nearly the same powers (z).

S E C T. LXXI.

The regulation of the finances in France is very exceptionable; the taxes are too high and too numerous, and thus require a multitude of receivers and other officers; who, together with those of the farmers-general, form a prodigious army; which must run away with immense sums. The gains of the contractors are likewise excessive; consequently a very considerable part of the taxes, with which the subjects, and particularly the country people, are loaded, never comes into the king's treasury. It is from a consideration of these abuses, that some persons of a patriotic spirit have drawn up schemes for a better regulation. These chiefly turn on reducing the great number of taxes to the few mentioned beneath, in order to lessen the charge of levying them; as thus the king will be a gainer, and the people greatly eased (77);

Defect in
the manage-
ment of the
French fi-
nances.

(z) Annal. Polit. St. Pierre, Part. I. p. 41, 161.

(77) The celebrated marshal Vauban was for reducing the several branches of the revenue to four capital funds; the first a tax on lands; the second a tax on houses in towns; on shopkeepers; on the gains of artificers and handicraftsmen; on interests, salaries, &c. The third the salt-tax; and the fourth the demefnes. These four funds he computes, will bring in annu-

but all their good intentions have hitherto remained without any effect.

ally 116 millions; and the three first may, as circumstances shall require, be increased from one to ten-tenths; and thus the king's revenue be raised to above 215 millions of livres. *Projet d'une Dixieme Royale*, p. 40, 115, and p. 117, 124.

M. De Real advises an uniform levying of the taxes, as in the *Païs d'Etats*, and the abolition of the great number of tax-farmers and other unnecessary officers. He likewise proposes another scheme, according to which, only one general salt-tax shall be imposed, every person paying two livres per month. He reckons the number of souls in the whole kingdom at eighteen millions; consequently this impost will bring in 36 millions a month, and 432 millions in a year. *Science du Gouvernement*, Part. VI. p. 147. But this in reality would be a most unequal, and at the same time, a most injurious poll-tax.

Lastly, Mr. Roussel, a counsellor of the parliament of Paris, has published, in 1763, a plan by the title of *Richesses de l'Etat*, by which the people's burdens may be very much diminished, and the king's income prodigiously increased. He reduces all the several kinds of imposts into one, which is a tax on persons substance. By way of illustrating the possibility of his plan, he admits of only two millions of taxable persons, dividing these into twenty classes; and the yearly payments of these, he makes to exceed 698,000,000. To these he adds 42 millions more, arising from the demefnes and tobacco. And thus the whole amount of the king's annual revenue, will not be less than 740,000,000. See the Table hereto annexed, and drawn by himself. This plan at first, occasioned a great stir, and particularly a vehement paper war; but the kingdom of the Partisans, Traitans, and Maltotiers, farmers, contractors, and excisemen, which was threatened with a total overthrow, at length has stood its ground, and seems to have acquired strength from the attacks made on it.

Mr. ROUSSEL's Plan for augmenting the Revenue of the Crown in France.

Classes, of which each person pays	Per Diem L. S. D.			Per Annum. L. S. D.			Number of per- sons.	Annual amount of each class.
1	—	—	2	3	—	10	100,000	304,166
2	—	—	3	4	11	3	100,000	456,250
3	—	—	6	9	2	6	100,000	912,500
4	—	—	9	13	13	9	100,000	1,368,750
5	—	1	—	18	5	—	100,000	1,825,000
6	—	2	—	36	10	—	100,000	3,650,000
7	—	3	—	54	15	—	100,000	5,475,000
8	—	4	—	73	—	—	100,000	7,300,000
9	—	8	—	146	—	—	100,000	14,600,000
10	—	14	—	255	10	—	100,000	21,550,000
11	1	5	—	456	5	—	100,000	44,625,000
12	1	12	—	584	—	—	100,000	58,400,000
13	1	13	—	602	5	—	100,000	60,225,000
14	1	14	—	620	10	—	100,000	62,050,000
15	1	15	—	638	15	—	100,000	63,875,000
16	1	16	—	657	—	—	100,000	65,700,000
17	1	17	—	675	5	—	100,000	67,525,000
18	1	18	—	693	10	—	100,000	69,350,000
19	1	19	—	711	15	—	100,000	71,175,000
20	2	—	—	730	—	—	100,000	73,000,000
Thus 2,000,000 of persons pay annually								698,366,666
The demesnes and customs make								42,000,000
Total								740,366,666

S E C T. LXXII.

Public
debts.

Amidst all these immense revenues of the crown, it is encumbered with debts to an enormous amount. The constant wars, both by sea and land, in the time of Lewis XIV. his many sumptuous buildings, the dissipation and profuseness of his court (78), swallowed up such prodigious sums, that he died two thousand six hundred millions in debt; which, at the present standard, make four thousand five hundred millions (79). The greater part of these debts indeed were soon after liquidated by the famous Law's system, and other compulsory measures; but some remain still (1748) unpaid (a); and the three wars in which Lewis XV. embarked, particularly the two last, have increased the burden.

(78) The duchess of Fontanges, a mistress of Lewis XIV. used to spend at the rate of ten thousand pounds sterling a month. De La Beaumelle, *Memoires de Maintenon*, Tom. II. Lib. XXVII. ch. iii.

(79) Lewis XIV. is said to have spent eighteen thousand millions of livres; which, communibus annis, amounts to three hundred and thirty millions a year. Voltaire's *Age of Lewis XIV.* Tom. II. ch. xxviii.

(a) D'Eon de Beaumont, *Mem.* Tom. II. p. 128.

S E C T.

S E C T. LXXIII.

France, according to the computation of *Agriculture*, some writers (*b*), contains as much arable land as would suffice for forty-three millions of persons (80). But the load of imposts under which the landed interest groans, damps their industry, so that considerable tracts of land lie waste. The frequent wars likewise deprive agriculture of hands; and from these causes it has so decreased, that a common harvest furnishes grain only for eighteen months, which formerly sufficed for two years (*c*). Accordingly, the necessity of assisting the farmer, and encouraging him to labour, has been long since perceived (81); and at present such a zeal prevails for improving agricul-

(*b*) *Remarques sur plusieurs Branches de Commerce & de Navigation*, ch. iii. p. 31.

(80) The author of the above Remarks infers from this, that France, as its inhabitants are very short of that number, being only eighteen millions, might supply Spain and Portugal, and part of Italy, with corn, and by such exportation make immense additions to its shipping and maritime commerce. See ch. iii. p. 33.

(*c*) See the same Remarks, ch. ii. p. 25.

(81) In the *Testament Politique* de Mr. Colbert, Part. II. ch. xii. Lewis XIV. is advised to lower the taxes on the country people, and advance them money for buying horned cattle and horses. In another work of this kind, attributed to the marquis de Louvois, this, otherwise merciless, minister, is for easing the farmers and cottagers; and lays the blame of their being so oppressed on Colbert. See *Testament Politique* du Marquis de Louvois, p. 542, &c.

ture and farming, that even men of learning bestow their attention on it, and have published many valuable writings on this subject. And as the corn trade was very much clogged, and the prohibition of its exportation an impediment to agriculture, the government have taken off every incumbrance, and the free exportation is now allowed.

Vintage.

The culture of the vine having met with none of these obstructions, has increased accordingly.

S E C T. LXIV.

Manufactures and fabrics.

Whatever the country produces of which any use may be made, is improved with equal alacrity and skill; so that all the cities and large towns are full of manufactures and fabrics. Paris is their capital seat, and particularly the Gobelins (82), in the suburb of St. Marcel, where formerly almost all the fine arts concentrated; but afterwards were limited to tapestry (83), and to painting, and

(82) The Gobelins is so called from Gillis Gobelin, who lived in the time of Francis I. and invented the scarlet-in-grain colour, or at least brought the French acquainted with it. The little river Bieure behind this house, and which is said to have a peculiar property of improving that colour, has since been likewise called the Gobelin River. Brice, Descript. de Paris, Tom. II. p. 25.

(83) Silken tapestry is made in the Gobelins, and woollen in the hotel de Savonniere.

drawing,

drawing, as appertaining to the former (*d*). Paris has likewise the finest looking-glass fabrics (84), and, together with Lyons, makes the richest gold and silver stuffs, fringes, laces, and silk stuffs; but other silk goods are made at Tours (85), Nimes, and a variety of places.

Cloths (86) and woollens (87), all kinds of fine (88) and coarse linens (89), laces (90), paper (91), parchment (92), tanned lea-

(*d*) Descript. de Paris, Tom: II. p. 26.

(84) The looking-glass fabrics were first founded by Colbert. The casting of looking-glass was invented at St. Gobin in Picardy, and has since been brought to great perfection. Annal. Polit. de St. Pierre, Part. I. p. 200.

(85) Silk-weaving was first founded at Tours by Lewis XI. who procured workmen from Italy, and even from Greece. De La Force, Tom. IV. p. 85.

(86) The finest cloths are made at Paris, Abbeville, and Sedan; the coarser in Normandy and Languedoc. A great cloth trade was formerly carried on from Carcassonne to the Levant, where three kinds of it are used. The finest is called Mahon; the second, which is something coarser, Londrins; and the worst Londres. De La Force, Tom. IV. p. 84, 87.

(87) Several kinds of these are made in Normandy; and at Rouen they are a considerable branch of trade. Camblets and Baragouins are one of the great manufactures in Flanders and at Valenciennes.

(88) Lawn and cambric are chiefly made in Picardy, and at Cambray and Valenciennes.

(89) Sail-cloth is manufactured in Brittany, and all other kinds of linen in Normandy; and these provinces export them to Spain.

(90) Considerable quantities of these are made in Flanders, and sold in France as Brabant and English goods.

(91) Angoumois and Auvergne are famous for the beauty and goodness of their paper; formerly the latter exported, annually, to the amount of 80,000 dollars. At present Normandy and Lionnois come in for a share in this trade.

(92) A great deal of this is made in Normandy.

ther (93), porcelain (94), hardware (95), verdigrease (96), saltpetre (97), soap (98), bleached wax (99), snuff and tobacco (100), are made in such quantities as to afford large exportations.

S E C T. LXXV.

Inland trade. France is very happily situated for trade, a great part of it confining on the sea ; and their inland trade is greatly facilitated by the extent of the coast, the goodness of the roads, and, still more, by rivers and canals. Among the latter, those of Briare and Orleans, and the royal canal of Languedoc, are the principal. The two first unite the Seine with the Loire (1) ; and through the

(93) The counties most noted for tanners are Normandy, Vendome, Limousin, and Touraine.

(94) This is made at Bois de Vincennes, and in the neighbourhood of Paris.

(95) In Auvergne five thousand families are said to live by making of knives, razors, and scissars, which accordingly have a great vent.

(96) Montpellier deals greatly in this commodity. The manner of making it may be seen in De La Force, Tom. IV. p. 90.

(97) See above, § 6.

(98) That of Marseilles and Toulon the best.

(99) The Levant yellow wax, bleached at Montpellier, is far preferable to that of Holland. De La Force, Tom. IV.

(100) Dunkirk, St. Omers, and Strasburg, especially the first, export immense quantities.

(1) The Briare canal begins from the river Loing, which runs into the Seine, and passing by the little town of Briare, from which it has its name, joins the Loire. The duke of

latter

latter the sea of Aquitain communicates with the Mediterranean (2).

The inland trade is likewise much promoted by the yearly marts and fairs of the principal cities and towns: those of Beaucaire, Lyons, and Bourdeaux, are the most noted and frequented by great numbers of foreigners.

S E C T. LXXVI.

The French foreign trade is very considerable, extending to all the four parts of the world. In Europe it is carried on both

Foreign
trade in Eu-
rope.

Sully, so long ago as Henry IV. had begun this undertaking, but after the death of that prince, the work was at a stand for many years, till, in 1638, Lewis XIII. transferred it to James Guyon and William Bouteroue, who carried it on at their own expence, in consideration of their heirs having the emoluments of it; which, however, are very much decreased since the making of the Orleans canal. This likewise takes its beginning from the Loing, and at Portmorant, two miles above Orleans, runs into the Loire. The house of Orleans, by an agreement with the undertakers, has the profits of it, which are said to be not less than one hundred and fifty thousand livres per annum. De La Force, Tom. V. p. 231.

(2) This canal, otherwise called the Canal de Junction des Deux Mers, is the most astonishing work of the kind in Europe. It was begun in 1666, and finished in 1680, under the inspection of Paul Riquet. It issues not far from Toulouse out of the Garonne to Beziers, and from thence to Certe, a sea-port on the Mediterranean. Its length is above forty French leagues, and the construction of it cost thirteen millions, to which the king contributed 6,920,818, and the states of Languedoc 6,079,182. Among other amazing difficulties, a passage was made through Mal Pas Hill to the length of one hundred and twenty fathoms, and the canal carried on under it. Riquet's heirs receive the profits of the canal and keep it in repair. De La Force, Tom. IV.

P. 3.

by

by land (3) and sea (4), for which the many and good sea-ports, as Bayonne, Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Nantz, St. Malo's, Havre-de-grace, Dieppe, Calais, Dunkirk, Marseilles, are very convenient. The two last Lewis XIV. made free ports.

As the French generally dispose of more goods to the European nations than they import from them, the surplus is consequently made up in specie, particularly with regard to Spain (e); and thus the advantage in this trade is wholly on their side.

To the Levant,

The French, of all European nations, are the greatest traders to the Levant. Their situation on the Mediterranean, and Marseilles being a free port, make it much more easy and lucrative to them than to other nations, especially the more northern. They export thither goods from their West-India islands, and of their own manufac-

(3) To Spain, Italy, Germany, and the Low-Countries.

(4) The French maritime commerce may be said to owe its first prosperity to Lewis XIV. as, before his time, the Dutch used to fetch the French goods from France and carry them to other parts of Europe. That prince, for the benefit of his subjects, abolished the duty called Droit de Fret, payable by foreign ships, and thus made the maritime commerce less burthensome to them. Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II. p. 182. The northern people, however, together with the Germans, Dutch, and English, are chiefly their own carriers for French goods; but to Spain, Portugal, and Italy, they are exported in French bottoms.

(e) De Real, Part. VI. p. 515.

tures

tures (*f*), particularly cloth from Languedoc (5); and bring back, among several other commodities, raw silk, wax, and, in times of scarcity, grain. On the west-coast of Africa (6) the French traffick to Guinea and Senegal, with the same goods as the other European nations (*g*). To Africa.

The French trade to the East-Indies, that is, to Surat, the coast of Malabar, and Coromandel and Bengal, and China, was very considerable; but in the last war with Great Britain, it met with a sensible shock; from which, however, it is daily recovering. The French, like the other Europeans, carry on the greater part of their India trade with silver, and the returns of all are the same (*h*). To the East-Indies and China.

But the most beneficial of all their foreign trades, is that to their West-India colonies, where, for their manufactures, wine, and other natural commodities, they receive such quantities of sugar, coffee, to- To the West-Indies.

(*f*) *Remarques sur plusieurs branches de Commerce, c. 15, &c.*

(5) The French have, by degrees, got the advantage of the English and Dutch in this trade. They send annually to the Levant, between fifty and sixty thousand pieces of cloth. *Remarques sur plusieurs branches, &c. ch. xiii.*

(6) The Normans were the first of all European people who traded thither, and this so early as the fourteenth Century. *Labat. Nouvelle Description de l'Afrique Occidentale, Tom. I. ch. iii.*

(*g*) See ch. i. § 55.

(*h*) See ch. i. § 56.

bacco, indigo, cacao, and cotton, that they re-export a considerable part of it, and most of this is paid for in specie (7).

To the West-India trade may likewise be added the Cod-fishery off Cape-Bréton (i); a great quantity of this fish being not only consumed in France (8), but carried to Italy and Spain (k).

S E C T. LXXVII.

Trading
companies.

Before Lewis XIII. the French had little trade to the other parts of the world. But cardinal de Richelieu, seeing the great advantages which would accrue to the state, from an extention of trade, zealously strove to set on foot a traffick both to the East and West-Indies; and accordingly several companies were erected, but, like some others, afterwards founded by Colbert (9), soon came to a period: and though the

(7) In the year 1764, according to the public accounts, goods were imported into the harbours of France from St. Domingo, Martinico, and Guadaloupe, to the amount of 98,003,515 livres in 353 ships from St. Domingo, 98 from Martinico, and 99 from Guadaloupe; which sufficiently shews the importance of these islands to the trade and shipping of France.

(i) See above, § 9.

(8) The fish-trade here, were it not cramped by the heavy duties, might be greatly improved. See Remarques, ch. X.

(k) Ibid. ch. x.

(9) The faults committed by Colbert in erecting these companies, are pointed out by the Abbé de St. Pierre, in his *Annal Polit.* Part. I. p. 42.

East-

East-India company erected in 1664, stood its ground, it made no figure (l). When the duke of Orleans, in 1717, instituted the Mississippi company, according to the famous plan of one Mr. Law, a native of Scotland, he united to it the said India, together with the Chinese and African companies, under the title of the Perpetual India Company. But, at first, it was in reality, only a chimera and deception, which the duke made use of for discharging the bonds on the state, amounting to fifteen hundred millions of livres; and this was actually done by shares in that company, in consideration of which the crown assigned to the company eight millions of livres, to be paid annually out of the tobacco farm (10); and this first gave it existence and vigour (m). It carried on the East-India trade very successfully (11), and ex-

(l) History of the Commerce and Settlements of the French in the East-Indies, in the Mod. Univ. Hist. Vol. XI. p. 118.

(10) The company's stock was fixed at an hundred and two millions, divided into fifty-one thousand shares. See History of the Commerce of the French, in the Mod. Univ. Hist. Vol. XI. p. 127.

(m) Ibid. Vol. XI. p. 119.

(11) A celebrated French writer speaks very contemptuously of this company, calling it, "Une compagnie qui n' à jamais fait le moindre profit, qui n' à jamais rein payé aux actionnaires & à ses creancieres du profit de son commerce, qui dans son administration n' à subsisté que d' un secret bri-

tended itself all along the coast of Coromandel; but the last war, in which the English made themselves masters of Pondicherry and their other possessions, brought it to a very low ebb (*n*).

S E C T. LXXVIII.

Administra-
tion of go-
vernment
and state
affairs.

The administration of state affairs in France, is lodged in several councils or assemblies. These are,

1. Le Conseil d'Etat, which is held by the king, with the chancellor and ministers of state (12); and here foreign concerns relating to war, peace, alliances, and negotiations with foreign courts, come under deliberation (*o*).

2. Le Conseil de Depeches, at which the king likewise assists, together with the

gandage." Addit. à l'Hist. Gen. p. 401. i. e. A company which has never made the least advantage, which has never paid the stock-holders and its creditors from the profits of its trade, and the management of which has been one clandestine robbery.

(*n*) See above, § 9.

(12) Among these are chiefly to be understood the four secretaries of state, who were formerly called only Secretaires des Commandemens & Finances de sa Majesté; the title of Secrétaire d'Etat was first used under Henry II. The department of the first of them, is the foreign affairs; of the second, war; of the third, the marine; and of the fourth, other domestic affairs. Besides which, the several provinces of the kingdom are divided among them, and each, during three months in the year, makes out all grants and pardons. De la Force, Tom. I. ch. xvii. Art. III.

(*o*) Id. Ibid. Art. I.

chan-

chancellor, the president of the finances, and the four secretaries of state. They are all allowed to propose, and every one attends to the execution of what is resolved on relating to his department. This council determines the most important affairs of the provinces; the appointment of governors of them, as also of the fortified cities, and the like concerns (*p*).

3. Le Grand Conseil, otherwise called Conseil d'Etat et Privé, and Conseil des Parties. This council is convened at the chancellor's pleasure, and meets in the council-chamber (13). The other members are the counsellors of state (14), the comptroller-general, and the intendant of the finances: the Maitres des Requêtes (15)

(*p*) Id. Ibid. Art. III.

(13) It is very seldom the king comes to the great council, though all its resolutions are prefaced with *Le Roi en son Conseil*; but when actually present, with this addition, *Sa Majesté y étant*. De la Force, Tom. I. ch. xvii. Art. IV.

(14) There are other Conseillers d'Etat Ordinaires, or Semestres. The former assist the whole year, the latter only six Months. De la Force, *ibid*.

(15) The Maitres de Requêtes are said to owe their institution to Lewis IX. At first they were but three; and after gradually increasing, have at length in 1752, being fixed at eighty. Their office was to acquaint the king with the petitions and complaints delivered to them; afterwards they were employed in extraordinary commissions in the army and the provinces. They are considered as members of the parliament. In the great council, they lay before that assembly all affairs relating to their offices, and sign the draught of the resolutions taken on their proposals. De la Force, Tom. I. ch. xvii.

likewise sit and vote in this council, which conducts the ordinary domestic affairs of government.

This great council has several divisions, according to the diversity of affairs; and the drawing up of the matters discussed and resolved on there, is done in the great chancery, the head of which is the chancellor, and where, besides many other officers, three hundred king's clerks (16) are employed.

4. The Council of Finances: whose ordinary members are the president, three counsellors, and the controleur-general. The king and the chancellor are sometimes present. This council issues orders for every thing relating to the revenue, taxes, contributions, expences, &c (17).

5. The Conscience-Council. This takes cognizance of ecclesiastical and religious concerns, as far as they come within the prerogative. When the king holds this coun-

(16) These at first were only sixty, but have been gradually augmented to three hundred. They form a particular body or society, with the king for their head and patron; and the secretaries of state must likewise be members of this society. By an order of Charles VIII. the office of a king's secretary ennobles the possessor and his descendants. *De la Force*, Tom. I. ch. xix.

(17) This council was established in 1661, on suppressing the office of *Sur-intendant des Finances*, and the king himself acted in that character. *Annal. Polit. de St. Pierre*.

cil,

cil, his father-confessor is likewise present (q).

6. Council of Trade (18), the members of which are, the secretaries of state for the marine, some counsellors of state, and six *maîtres des requêtes*, who are styled intendants of trade. The deputies of the twelve largest commercial cities are likewise summoned (r).

S E C T. LXXIX.

In the provinces, the conduct of affairs is chiefly lodged with the governors, whose business is to cause the king's commands to be executed, and to maintain the public quiet, and safety. Governments being chiefly bestowed on princes, dukes, and peers, or eminent military officers, whom their other employments will not admit to be continually in the province, Charles VI. and Charles VII. appointed deputies, with the title of lieutenant-general. Such lieutenant-generals in time came to be appointed together with the governor, and in some provinces more than one; next to

Govern-
ment of the
Provinces.

(q) De la Force, Tom. I. ch. xvii.

(18) Lewis XIV. erected this office for the improvement of trade, and used every fortnight to be there in person. Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. Tom. II.

(r) De la Force, Tom. I. ch. xvii. Art. VI.

these are the lieutenants de roy in the cities, a great number of whom were first made by Lewis XIV. in 1692 (s).

Besides the former, all fortified places have governors independent of the governor of the province; and sometimes the king appoints particular commandants over the troops in the provinces and cities, so that the governors have no manner of command over them (t); and their power, which was formerly very great (19), is in other respects reduced within very narrow limits.

S E C T. LXXX.

Domestic
interest of
France.

The king's unlimited prerogative is so firmly established, that in the common course of things, it has no alteration to apprehend, and a common portion of sagacity and foresight will suffice both to maintain such a constitution, and to promote the people's welfare. A celebrated French writer recommends the following particulars to the government, as capital maxims. 1. To restore the marine and commerce. 2. Not to

(s) De la Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. Art. II.

(t) Ibid.

(19) All fortified places in the respective provinces, were under their command; they could pardon, confer nobility, call causes from the common courts before themselves; besides several other rights of sovereignty. But all these privileges have long since been taken from them. De la Force, Tom. I. ch. xx. Art. II.

change

change the ministry so often as formerly.

3. To protect the parliament in its dignity, for the better administration of justice, and for maintaining the supremacy of the king over the bishops and clergy. 4. To leave the bishops their legal prerogatives, but by no means to extend them. 5. Not to allow too great authority to the princes of the blood, to those of the house of Lorrain, and to the great men. 6. Never to restore the office of constable and colonel-general of the French infantry. 7. To tolerate no religion in the kingdom, but the Catholic: and, 8. To lessen the taxes, were it only to promote population in the country (u).

France, considered with regard to foreigners, is so happily situated, and withal so potent, as to be above any fear of its neighbours. The naval force of Great Britain is indeed become dangerous to its possessions and colonies in the other parts of the world, and of course to its maritime commerce. This has occasioned a great alteration in the French politicks, and a close alliance with the house of Austria (20), which

Foreign interest.

(u) M. de Real Science du Gouvern. Part VI. p. 515.

(20) This alliance, concluded in 1756, is considered by the French as a most fortunate event, promising themselves either a perpetual peace in Europe, or looking upon it as certain,

for-

formerly was the constant object of France's jealousy, and Great Britain's ancient and natural ally. France thus circumstanced has nothing to apprehend from that powerful house, nor from the German empire, so that Great Britain is the only state which can appear formidable to this kingdom; for with Spain and the other princes of the house of Bourbon, the natural tie of consanguinity is strengthened by the family-compact, as it is called, made in 1761, pursuant to which France has, besides great commercial advantages, ensured to itself a powerful assistance in all its wars.

Portugal is neither inclined nor able to hurt France.

The like may be said of the United Provinces; or rather the greatness of the English naval force, and commerce, is such an eye-sore to them, that at present they are better disposed towards France than towards Great Britain.

The kings of France have formerly endeavoured to make conquests in Italy, but the consequences were always unfortunate, so that, in the opinion even of French politicians, all such thoughts should be laid aside; yet they would have France by all means seek to get into its hands Savoy

that in case of a war, the two allied powers, will be able to give law to all their enemies.

and

and the county of Nice, as so very conveniently situated (x), otherwise France is perfectly safe with respect to Italy (21). The pope fears and regards that crown more than all the other Catholic powers, as most able to give him trouble.

With Denmark and Sweden France has for several years been in alliance, and pays them subsidies; therefore instead of traversing its views they may occasionally promote them. The influence of French politics is however greater in the latter kingdom, and to this were owing the two last wars against Russia and Prussia.

Prussia's refusal in the beginning of the last war between France and Great Britain to close with the French measures, occasioned the alliance of France with the House of Austria; and Prussia has ever since been looked on as an adverse power.

Poland and Russia are at too great a distance to assist or hurt France immediately; but in any confusion in the affairs of Europe in general, or of the North in particular, they can either promote or obstruct its designs. France has, at times, entered into alliances with Russia; and in Poland, since the

(x) De Real Science du Gouern. Part VI. p. 512.

(21) Four irruptions of large armies from Italy into Provence, in the years 1524, 1536, 1707, and 1746, all miscarried.

last century, has, at every election of a king, played off every engine to procure the throne for a candidate in the French interest.

With the Ottoman Porte France has constantly kept up a good understanding ever since Francis I. and besides the advantages accruing to the French Levant trade from this harmony, it has often set the Turks on the House of Austria. They may likewise do France good service against Russia and Poland, should these powers, on any occasion, go about to oppose the designs of that crown.

S E C T. LXXXI.

Claims.

The kings of France had formerly claims to the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, and the Duchy of Milan; but Francis I. was obliged to renounce them at the Treaty of Madrid, and by other conventions. Some learned Frenchmen have attributed to their kings a right to the several countries of which Charles the Great was possessed (22), and particularly to Germany and

(22) Among these are Jacques de Cassau, *Recherche des Droits du Roy et de la Couronne de France, sur les Royaumes, Duchés et Comtes occupez par les Princes étrangers*, à Paris 1632, 1634, 1646; and Pierre Du Puy, *Traité touchant les Droits du Roy Très-Chrétien sur plusieurs Etats & Seigneuries, possédez par les Princes voisins*, à Paris 1655, & à Rouen 1670. f. In this work Theodore Godefrey had a large share.

the

the empire (23) ; but the court itself seems to lay but little stress on these assertions. The claim to the kingdom of Navarre, which Henry IV. bequeathed to his successors, is the best grounded of all ; and accordingly France has never publicly receded from it.

S E C T. LXXXII.

France having, more or less, borne a part in the transactions and wars of almost every European state, must necessarily have entered into a multitude of treaties with other powers ; and of these the principal are,

I. With the emperor and the German empire.

Treaties of peace : 1. At Munster, the 24th of October 1648 (*y*). 2. At Nimeguen, the 5th of February 1679 (*z*). 3. At Ryswic, the 30th of October 1697 (*a*). 4. At Baden, the 7th of September 1714 (*b*).

(23) Auberg des justes Pretensions du Roy sur l'Empire, à Paris, 1667. 12. Vid. Puffendorf, de reb. gest. Frid. Wilh. M. Lib. X. § 34.

(*y*) Du Mont, Corps Diplom. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 450. Schmaufs, Corp. Jur. Publ. p. 853. Mably, Droit Publ. de l'Europe, Tom. I. ch. i. p. 17.

(*z*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 376. Schmaufs, p. 1100.

(*a*) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. II. p. 421. Schmaufs, p. 117. Mably, Tom. I. ch. v. p. 227.

(*b*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 436. Schmaufs, p. 1256.

5. At

5. At Vienna, the 18th of November 1738 (*c*).

II. With the house of Austria.

1. Treaty of peace at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the 18th of October 1747 (*d*). 2. Alliance of the 1st of May 1756 (*e*).

III. With Spain (*f*).

IV. With Great-Britain.

Treaties of peace : 1. On the 13th of October 1259 (*g*). 2. Of the 8th of May 1360 (*h*). 3. Treaty at Troyes, of the 21st of May 1420 (*i*). 4. Of the 30th of April 1527 (*k*). 5. Treaty of peace at Chateau Cambresis of the 2d of April 1559 (*l*), and at Susa of the 24th of April 1629 (*m*). 6. Treaty of the 29th of March 1632 (*n*). 7. Alliance of the 9th of May

(*c*) Rouffet, Recueil d'Actes, Negociations & Traités, Tom. XIII. p. 421. Mably, Tom. II. ch. ix. p. 221.

(*d*) Ibid. Tom. XX. p. 179.

(*e*) New Genealogical and Historical Accounts, written in German, Part LXXVII. p. 407.

(*f*) See Chap. XI. § 7. of this work.

(*g*) Rymer Fœder. & Act. Publ. Tom. I. P. II. p. 50. Du Mont, Tom. I. P. I. p. 210.

(*h*) Rymer, Tom. III. P. II. p. 3. Du Mont, Tom. II. P. I. p. 7.

(*i*) Rymer, Tom. IV. P. III. p. 171. Du Mont, Tom. II. P. II. p. 142.

(*k*) Rymer, Tom. VI. P. II. p. 88. Du Mont, Tom. IV. P. I. p. 472.

(*l*) Rymer, Tom. VI. P. IV. p. 70. Du Mont, Tom. V. P. I. p. 29.

(*m*) Du Mont, Tom. V. P. II. p. 580.

(*n*) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 31, 33.

1657 (*o*). 8. Treaty for the purchase of Dunkirk, 17th of October 1662 (*p*). 9. Peace at Breda, 31st of July 1667 (*q*). 10. Alliance of the 16th of June 1672 (*r*). 11. Peace at Ryswic of the 20th of September 1697 (*s*). 12. Treaty of peace and commerce at Utrecht of the 11th of April 1713 (*t*). 13. Alliances of the 4th of January 1717, 2d of August 1718, and 3d of September 1725 (*u*). 14. Treaty of peace at Aix-la-Chapelle on the 18th of October 1747 (*x*); and 15. At Paris on the 10th of February 1763 (*y*).

V. With Portugal (*z*).

VI. With the United Provinces.

1. Alliance of the 31st of October 1596 (*a*).
2. Alliance and subsidy-treaty of the 23d of January 1608 (*b*). 3. Of the 8th of February 1635 (*c*). 4. Treaty of alliance and

(*o*) Du Mont, Tom. VI. P. II. p. 178.

(*p*) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 432. Mably, Tom. I. p. 148.

(*q*) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. I. p. 40.

(*r*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 208.

(*s*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 399.

(*t*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 339 & 345.

(*u*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 484 & 531. P. II. p. 127.

(*x*) Rouffet, Tom. XX. p. 179.

(*y*) Faber neue Europ. Staatskantzl. Part. IX. § 118.

(*z*) See Chap. III. § 57.

(*a*) Du Mont, Tom. V. P. I. p. 531.

(*b*) Ibid. Tom. V. P. II. p. 89.

(*c*) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 80.

com-

commerce of the 27th of April 1662 (*d*).

5. Treaty of peace and commerce at Nimègue on the 10th of August 1678 (*e*).

6. At Ryswic the 20th of September 1697 (*f*).

7. At Utrecht the 11th of April 1713 (*g*).

8. Alliance of the 4th of January 1717 (*b*).

9. Treaty of commerce the 21st of December 1739 (*i*); and 10.

Treaty of peace at Aix-la-Chapelle the 18th of October 1747 (*k*).

VII. With Denmark.

1. Alliance in 1498 (*l*). 2. Of the 29th of November 1541 (*m*).

3. Treaty of commerce in 1662 (*n*).

4. Alliance on the 3d of August 1663 (*o*).

5. Treaty of peace at Fontainbleau on the 2d of September 1679 (*p*); and of late several subsidy

treaties.

(*d*) Du Mont, Tom. VI. P. II. p. 412.

(*e*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 350, 357.

(*f*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 381, 386.

(*g*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 366, 377. Mably, Tom. II. p. 129.

(*b*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 127.

(*i*) Rouffet, Tom. XIV. p. 447.

(*k*) Ibid. Tom. XX. p. 179.

(*l*) Du Mont, Tom. III. P. II. p. 386.

(*m*) Ibid. Tom. IV. P. II. p. 216.

(*n*) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 436.

(*o*) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 470.

(*p*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 419.

VIII. With

VIII. With Sweden.

Alliances: 1. Of the 1st of July 1542 (q).
 2. Of the 23d of January 1631 (r). 3. Of
 the 15th of September 1635 (s). 4. Of
 the 24th of September 1661 (t). 5. Treaty
 of commerce of the 30th of December
 1662 (u). Alliances: 6. Of the 14th of
 April 1672 (x). 7. Of the 25th of April
 1675 (y). 8. Of the 9th of July 1698 (z).
 9. Of the 1st of September 1712 (a); and
 several late subsidy-treaties.

IX. With Poland.

Alliance of the 18th of September
 1735 (b).

X. With Prussia.

1. Peace at Utrecht on the 11th of April
 1713 (c). 2. Alliance of the 3d of Sep-
 tember 1725 (d).

XI. With the dukes of Savoy, and since
 as kings of Sardinia.

(q) Du Mont, Tom. IV. P. II. p. 228.

(r) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 1.

(s) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 56.

(t) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 381.

(u) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 446.

(x) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 166.

(y) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 291.

(z) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 441.

(a) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 310.

(b) Rouffet, Supplém. au Corps Diplom. Tom. II. P. I.
 p. 541.

(c) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 356. Mably, Tom.
 II. ch. vii. p. 141.

(d) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 127.

1. Treaty of peace of the 17th of January 1601 (*e*). 2. Alliance of the 25th of April 1610 (*f*). 3. Treaty of limits of the 27th of April 1672 (*g*). 4. Treaties of peace of the 29th of August 1696 (*h*); and 5. Of the 11th of April 1713 (*i*).

XII. With Venice.

Alliances: 1. Of the 9th of January 1478 (*k*). 2. Of the 15th of April 1499 (*l*). 3. Peace and alliance of the 23d of March 1513 (*m*). 4. Conventions of the 8th of October 1517 (*n*), and 5. of the 7th of February 1623 (*o*).

XIII. With the Swiss Cantons.

Alliances: 1. Of the 8th of November 1452 (*p*). 2. Of the 26th of October 1475 (*q*). 3. Treaty of peace and alliance of the 29th of November 1516 (*r*). 4. Alliances of the 31st of January 1602 (*s*); and

(*e*) Du Mont, Tom. V. P. II. p. 10.

(*f*) Ibid. Tom. V. P. II. p. 137.

(*g*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 197.

(*h*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 386.

(*i*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 362. Mably, Tom. II. ch. vii. p. 137.

(*k*) Du Mont, Tom. III. P. II. p. 18.

(*l*) Ibid. Tom. III. P. II. p. 406.

(*m*) Ibid. Tom. IV. P. I. p. 182.

(*n*) Ibid. Tom. IV. P. II. p. 263.

(*o*) Ibid. Tom. IV. P. II. p. 417.

(*p*) Ibid. Tom. III. P. I. p. 193.

(*q*) Ibid. Tom. III. P. I. p. 520.

(*r*) Ibid. Tom. IV. P. I. p. 248.

(*s*) Ibid. Tom. V. P. II. p. 18.

5. Of the second of July 1653 (*t*); which have since been frequently renewed.

XIV. With Russia.

1. Treaty of commerce of the 12th of November 1629 (*u*). 2. Treaty of peace of the 4th of August 1717 (*x*). Russia likewise acceded to the alliance between France and Austria of 1756 (*y*).

XV. With the Ottoman Porte.

Treaties of commerce: 1. Of the 28th of April 1604 (*z*); and 2. Of the 5th of June 1673 (*a*): which was renewed 1740 (*b*).

S E C T. LXXXIII.

No state in Europe has produced so many and so great statesmen and warriors as France; and to these it chiefly owes its glory, present grandeur, and power. The administration of affairs has generally always been lodged in the hands of able persons. Such, for instance, were under Lewis XII. the cardinal d'Amboise; under

Celebrated
statesmen
and warriors.

(*t*) Du Mont, Tom. VI. P. II. p. 65.

(*u*) Ibid. Tom. V. P. II. p. 597.

(*x*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 490.

(*y*) See New Genealogical and Historical Accounts, in German, p. 612.

(*z*) Du Mont, Tom. V. P. II. p. 39.

(*a*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 231.

(*b*) See Mably, Tom. II. ch. vi. p. 17.

Francis I. the admiral d'Annebaut ; under Henry II. the constable de Montmorency ; under Henry IV. the duke de Sully ; under Lewis XIII. cardinal de Richlieu ; under Lewis XIV. cardinal Mazarine, the marquis de Louvois, and Colbert ; and under Lewis XV. cardinal Fleury.

The most celebrated among the commanders are ; under Charles V. the constable du Gueselin ; under Lewis XII. the marshals Trivulzio and d'Aubigny ; under Francis I. the constable Anne de Montmorency, who likewise held this post under Henry II. Francis II. and Charles IX. tho' generally very unsuccessful ; under Henry IV. the marshals de Biron, father and son, and the duke de Bouillon ; under Lewis XIII. the marshals de Bassompierre, Montmorency, and Guebriant ; under Lewis XIV. the prince of Conde, the marshals Gassion, Turenne, Crequy, Schomberg, Luxemburg, Villeroy, Vauban, Villars, and the duke of Vendome ; under Lewis XV. the marshals Berwick, Noailles, Bellisle, and the counts Saxe and Lowendahl.

S E C T. LXXXIV.

The sources of the history of France lie ^{Historians.} in the collections of Pithou (24), Freher (25), Du Chesne (26), and Bouquet (27). Compleat histories of France have been published by Paul Æmilius (28), Du Pleix (29), Mezeray (30), Daniel (31),

(24) *Annalium & Historiæ Francorum ab A. C. DCCVIII. ad Ann. DCCCXC. Scriptores Coëtanei XII. editi a Petro Pitheo, Parisiis 1588 & Francofurti 1594. 8vo.*

Historiæ Francorum ab Anno DCCCC ad MCCLXXXV. Scriptores veteres IX. editi ab eodem. Francof. 1596 f.

(25) *Marquardri Freheri Corpus Historiæ Francicæ veteris & sinceræ, Hanoviz 1613. f.*

(26) *Historiæ Francorum Scriptores coëtanei, Tomus I. & II. opera Andreæ Du Chesne, Parisiis 1636. f. Tomus III. IV. & V. editi a Francisco Duchesne Andreæ filio, Parisiis 1641 & 1649. f.*

The writings contained in these three collections may be seen in Christ. Gottlieb Buder, *Bibliotheca Histor. Sel. Cap. XIII. § 4. p. 308. & seqq.*

(27) *Rerum Gallicarum & Francicarum Scriptores, opera Domini Martini Bouquet, Tomus I. IX. Parisiis 1738—1757. f.*

(28) *Pauli Æmilii de rebus gestis Francorum, Libri X. cum Arn. Ferroni Continuatione & Jo. Tilii Chronico. Basiliz 1601. f.*

(29) *Histoire generale de France depuis Pharamond jusqu'à present, par Scipion Du Pleix, V. Tomes, à Paris 1650, 1654, 1663.*

(30) *History of France from Pharamond to the peace of Vervins, by Francois Eudes De Mezeray, à Paris 1643, 1646, 1651, 3 Tomes. f. In the second edition of three volumes folio, published at Paris in 1685, he has continued the history to the death of Henry IV. From the first edition he made an extract, with the title of Chronological*

Le Gendre (32) ; Velly and Villaret now continuing by Professor Garnier (33).

S E C T. LXXXV.

Writings relating to the politics of France.

The state of France has been very well described by Limneus (34), Pigan. De La Force (35), the count De Boulainvilliers (36), and others (37).

Abridgment of the History of France, first printed at Paris in 1668, in three volumes, which have been several times reprinted with alterations ; some prefer the extract even to the great work.

(31) History of France from the foundation of the monarchy of the Franks in Gaul, by P. Gab. Daniel, à Paris 1713, 3 Tomes f. & à Amsterdam 1716, 6 Tomes, 4to. The last edition came out under the inspection of Griffet, in sixteen quarto volumes at Paris, 1755, 1756, 1757.

(32) Nouvelle Histoire de France depuis le Commencement de la Monarchie jusqu'à la mort de Louis XIII. Louis le Gendre à Paris 1718. 3 Tomes f.

(33) Histoire de France depuis l'établissement de la Monarchie jusqu'au règne de Louis XIV. par M. l'abbé Velly, Tom. I.—VII. à Paris 1755—1760. 12mo. Continué par M. Villaret & par M. Gautier, Tom. VIII.—XIV. à Paris 1760—1764. & XX. 1768, 12mo.

(34) *Limnæi Notitia Regni Franciæ*. Argentorati, 1655. 2 Tom. 4to.

(35) Nouvelle Description de la France, par Mr. Pignol De La Force, à Paris 1718, & à Amsterdam 1719. 6 Tomes gr, 12mo. This work has been considerably enlarged in a new edition, making thirteen Volumes, the first of which came out in 1752.

(36) *Etat de la France, extrait des Memoires dressez par les Intendans du Royaume, avec des Memoires Historiques sur l'ancien Gouvernement de cette Monarchie jusqu'à Hugues Capet*, par Mr. le comte De Boulainvilliers, à Londres 1727, 2 Tomes f.

(37) Po-

(37) Political View of the State of France, written in German, by Charles Frederic Wernich, Leipzig, 1762, 8vo.

Etat de la France, à Paris 1718, 3 Tomes gr. 12mo. The author of this work, which, with additions and amendments, has gone through several editions, is father St. Rosalia, a bare-footed Augustinian.

For the ancient French government may be consulted Francisci Hotomanni Franco-Gallia, 1586. 8vo. The latest and best edition is that printed at Franckfort in 1681. 8vo.

Histoire de l'ancien Gouvernement de la France, avec XIV. Lettres Historiques sur les Parlemens ou Etats-Generaux, par M. le comte De Boulainvilliers, à la Haye & Amsterdam, 1727, 3 Tomes, 12mo.

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EUROPE.

CHAP. V.
OF GREAT BRITAIN.

SECT. I.

THE name of Great Britain, Name. which comprehends England and Scotland (1), was introduced by king James I. as the first monarch who reigned over both these kingdoms at once (a).

(1) The whole island was formerly called Britannia, and the northern part distinguished by the name of Caledonia. When, on the Romans quitting Britain, the Saxons and Angles, who had been called in by the Britons to protect them from their enemies the Scots and Picts, had made themselves masters of the southern part of the island, it was called Saxonia Nova, and by foreigners Saxonia Transmarina; but afterwards, about the end of the sixth century, it was altered to Anglia, England, that is, the country of the Angles. Thus the name of Britain was discontinued, and that of Caledonia soon after; the Scots, having subdued their neighbours the Picts, and made themselves masters of the country, called it Scotland. Robertson's History of Scotland, Vol. I. p. 3. Verstegan's Restitution, &c. Ch. V. and Rapin's History of England, Vol. I. p. 144.

(a) Rapin by Tindal, Vol. III. p. 43.

S E C T. II.

Situation.

England reaches from the 50th to the 56th degree of northern latitude, and from the 11th to the 19th degree of western longitude. Scotland lies between the 54th and 59th degree of northern latitude, and the 11th and 15th of western longitude from the meridian of Ferro.

England is divided from France by the Channel, which, between Dover and Calais, is scarce seven leagues broad: this has inclined some to think that in very ancient times it was joined to France by an isthmus, and separated by some violent convulsion in nature (*b*).

Extent.

England's greatest length, from Berwick to the most southern part of the Isle of Wight, is computed at 360 miles; and its greatest breadth, from Dover Cliffs to the Lands End, 285 miles: whereas Scotland, from north to south, is but 250 miles (*2*), and from east to west only 100 miles (*c*). It is likewise com-

(*b*) Camden's *Britannia*, p. 207, 208. Verstegan, Ch. IV. p. 96, 97. Musgrave in *Dissert. de Britannia quondam pene Insula*, praemissa ejus libro de Belgio Britannico, P. II. XX.

(*2*) Some, however, reckon its greatest breadth at 150 English miles. See Chamberlayne, P. II. B. I. ch. i. P. 4.

(*c*) Mieg's *Present State of Great-Britain and Ireland*, P. I. ch. ii. p. 6. and P. II. ch. i. p. 287, 288.

puted

puted that England contains 2916, Scotland 1600, geographical square miles; and thus the whole extent of Great-Britain makes 4516 such miles (*d*).

S E C T. III.

The weather in England is variable, but temperate, neither extremely hot in summer, nor very cold in winter: the air is commonly thick and close, yet not unhealthy; or rather, this quality is in several respects beneficial to the country and the inhabitants (*e*): whereas in Scotland the air is colder, but, at the same time, more clear and pure, which is chiefly owing to frequent gales of wind (*f*).

S E C T. IV.

England is mostly level, agreeably diversified with hills and vales, but few mountains: whereas Wales is every where mountainous; which likewise may, in a great measure, be applied to Scotland; the north-west part being, from the coast up the country, a cluster of dreary mountains tow-

(*d*) Busching's Geography, Vol. II.

(*e*) Chamberlayne's Present State of Great-Britain, P. I. B. I. ch. iv. p. 6.

(*f*) Miede, P. II. ch. i. p. 288.

ering one above another to a prodigious height (3):

S E C T. V.

Rivers.

The principal rivers in England are :

I. The Thames, which is formed from the conflux of the rivers Thame and Isis, near Dorchester in Oxfordshire, and discharges itself into the north-sea, about 60 miles below London.

II. The Medway, which issues from Kent, and joins the Thames at the Isle of Sheppey.

III. The Severn, which rises in North Wales, and runs into Bristol Channel thro' Gloucestershire.

IV. The Trent, the source of which is in Staffordshire; in Lincolnshire it joins the Humber, which is formed by the conflux of several rivers, and at last becomes a large bay.

In Scotland, the two principal rivers are the Firth and Clyde. Were these two rivers, which would be no difficult matter, joined by a canal, a communication would be opened between the East and West Sea, to the very great advantage of trade (g).

(3) A description of these high mountains in a Collection of Letters from Scotland, Lett. XV.

(g) Miege, P. I. ch. ii. p. 7. P. II. ch. i. p. 291. ch. vi. p. 309.

S E C T.

S E C T. VI.

England has, in ancient times, been praised for its fertility (4), which still continues to be such that no country in Europe exceeds it. It abounds in excellent horned cattle (5) and sheep, whose wool is accounted the finest in Europe next to that of Spain. Its horses are every where valued for their strength and swiftness. The wild beasts for chase are only hares, deer, and stags; but this is amply compensated by its having no beasts of prey, as bears, wolves, and wild-boars. Among the domestic animals, that species of dogs called bull-dogs are famous for their force and spirit (6). Wild-fowl is not in such abundance as in many other countries; but it

Fertility in
the animal
kingdom.

(4) *Britanniam omnibus cœli ac soli bonis natura donavit, in qua nec rigor est nimius hiemis, nec ardor æstatis, in qua segetum tanta fecunditas, ut muneribus utrisque sufficiat & Cereris & Liberi, in qua nemora sine immanibus bestiis, terra sine serpentibus noxiis; contra pecorum initium innumera multitudo, lacte distenta & onusta velleribus. Eumenius in Panegyr. Constantini Cæs. cap. IX.*

(5) From the milk are made vast quantities of excellent cheese, the most known of which are those of Cheshire and Gloucestershire.

(6) They readily encounter bulls and bears, and even lions and other wild beasts. In the time of Charles II. a lion was killed by one of these dogs. Miede, P. I. ch. iii. p. 10. These English dogs were famous so long ago as the Roman times. Vid. Lipsius in Epist. ad Belgas, Epist. 44. in Oper. ejus, Tom. II. p. 778. But when carried abroad they soon degenerate.

breeds

breeds plenty of poultry (7). The rivers and sea furnish variety of fish, and particularly excellent oysters (*b*).

In the vegetable kingdom.

England produces plenty of good vegetables and fruits, especially apples and pears (8). Timber and wood for fuel are something scarce, England having but few forests of any extent (9); and the excellent oaks growing in them are carried away for the supply of the navy. England is so plentifully provided with roots, vegetables, grain, and especially wheat (10), that, since the farmer's industry has been encouraged

(7) Among these is a remarkable kind of cocks, who are brought up for fighting, and fed in a particular manner. They attack each other with such fury, that sometimes both die on the spot.

(*b*) Le Blanc, Tom. III. Lettr. LXXXV.

(8) Some counties have such an abundance of these fruits, as to make greater quantities of liquors called cyder and perry, than suffice for home consumption.

(9) The four largest are those of Dean, Sherwood, Windsor, and the New Forest. The last was a work of William I. who, to that purpose, laid waste a part of the country 36 miles in circumference, and in which were 36 parish-churches. Rapin, Vol. II, p. 115, 116.

The fields are ravish'd from industrious swains,
From men their cities, and from gods their fanes:
The levell'd towns with weeds lie cover'd o'er;
The hollow winds thro' naked temples roar;
Round broken columns clasping ivy twin'd;
O'er heaps of ruin stalk'd the stately hind;
The fox, obscene, to gaping tombs retires,
And savage howlings fill the sacred quires.

POPE'S Windsor Forest.

(10) The English glory not a little, that for 400 years successively they have not had a famine or a scarcity. Miegé, P. I. ch. iii. p. 9.

by

by a bounty, the exportation of corn has amounted to prodigious sums. Some counties likewise produce liquorice, saffron, wood, and madder, with variety of medical herbs. England, indeed, makes no wine, though the soil does not seem wholly to deny that culture (*i*).

Of metal England produces iron and copper, though in no great quantity; but it abounds in lead, and especially in fine tin (11). Silver (12) and gold (13) it has none, or what little is found, is thought not worth notice. Among its minerals are crystal, allum, vitriol, and excellent fuller's-earth: likewise marble, alabaster, freestone, slate, and particularly inexhaustible quantities of pit-coal. Several places are noted for mineral waters and warm-baths, and especially the city of Bath. Staffordshire has salt-springs, and the best are those

The fossil
kingdom.

(*i*) Barclay, Icon anim. cap. iv. p. 381. & Le Blanc, Tom. II. Lettr. XLI.

(11) No metal comes so near the beauty of silver as English tin. Its principal mines are in Cornwall. According to some writers, the Phœnicians used to trade to Britain for its tin. Campbell's Lives of British Admirals, Vol. I. ch. i.

(12) Wales, Cornwall, and Lincolnshire, afford silver-ore; but it lies so deep, and requires so much toil and trouble, as not to quit cost. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. I. ch. iv.

(13) Some Cornish people in 1753, who were looking for tin, found in the brooks grains of gold, and others have since had the same good luck. Borlace's Natural History of Cornwall. See London Magazine 1758, Aug.

at

at Nantwich in Cheshire; salt is likewise made from sea-water.

S E C T VII.

Fertility of
Scotland.

Scotland, though, in general, not so fruitful as England, yet produces a sufficiency of all necessaries. It has sheep and horned cattle enough, or rather, such numbers of the latter, that considerable droves are sold every year to England. These, however, are something small; and this is the case of the horses, which yet find a good market in England. Scotland abounds in game of all kinds, and particularly wild-fowl; and no less in fish, as trout, salmon, cod, oysters, muscles (14). Porpoises, seals, and the lesser species of whales, appear frequently on the coasts, and sometimes even the large ones are stranded. In spring and summer all the coasts of Scotland swarm with herrings (15).

The Lowlands in Scotland are not without several kinds of fruit, but not equal to

(14) And among these, a kind of muscles found in the little rivers of the Isle of Sky, containing fine pearls, some of which are said to have fetched 20l. sterling. Miega, P. II. c. ii.

(15) But of these the Dutch reap the greatest advantage, the Scotch not being very well skilled in preparing and salting herrings; and even the British fishing company erected in 1749, though strongly supported by the parliament, cannot boast any considerable success.

those

those of England. The Highlands abound in timber and fuel-wood, and particularly produce large firs fit for masts; though, to bring them down from the mountains is often a work of great difficulty. The lowlands afford plenty of grain of all kinds, and hemp and flax; almost the only grain in the Highlands is oats.

The large mountains in Scotland contain several ores, as copper, iron, white and black lead, and, according to some, even gold and silver (16). In some parts are found agates, blue amethysts, and a kind of pebbles, which, when polished, have an exquisite lustre; likewise magnets and crystals. Of pit-coal it has immense stores; and in some parts excellent marble (17) and quarries of very good stone. Its salt is made from the sea-water, and not sufficiently for the demand. Several places in Scotland have their mineral springs (1).

(16) Some Scotch writers say, that gold-ore was discovered in the time of James IV. and the mines worked by German miners, but with little profit. Miede, P. II. ch. ii. This is the more probable, these gold-mines not having any subsequent work bestowed on them.

(17) Scotland has whole hills of marble, white and green. The former with veins of several colours, the latter are chiefly veined with red. Miede. P. II. ch. i.

(1) Ibid. Chamberlayne, P. II. B. I. ch. i. and iii.

S E C T. VIII.

Division of
England.

South-Britain consists of the kingdom of England and the principality of Wales. The latter had for a long time its own princes, till Edward I. brought it under the English dominion; and Henry VIII. incorporated it with England, to be governed by the laws of that kingdom; since which epocha it has no longer been considered as a distinct country (*m*). England is divided into forty counties, by the English called shires (18), and Wales into twelve. The English counties are, 1. Bedfordshire, 2. Berkshire, 3. Buckinghamshire, 4. Cambridgeshire, 5. Cheshire, 6. Cornwall, 7. Cumberland, 8. Derbyshire, 9. Devonshire, 10. Dorsetshire, 11. Durham, 12. Essex, 13. Gloucestershire, 14. Hampshire, 15. Hertfordshire, 16. Herefordshire, 17. Huntingdonshire, 18. Kent, 19. Lancashire, 20. Leicestershire, 21. Lincolnshire, 22. Middlesex, 23. Monmouthshire, 24. Norfolk, 25. Northamptonshire, 26. Northumberland, 27. Nottinghamshire, 28. Oxfordshire, 29.

(*m*) Miede, P. I. ch. viii.

(18) This appellation comes from the old Saxon word Shiren, i. e. To rend asunder, to divide; which signification still subsists in the Dutch word Scheuren. The author of this division was king Alfred, for the better maintaining of order and a good police. Rapin, Vol. I. p. 330.

Rutland, 30. Shropshire, 31. Somersetshire, 32. Staffordshire, 33. Suffolk, 34. Surry, 35. Suffex, 36. Warwickshire, 37. Westmoreland, 38. Wiltshire, 39. Worcestershire, and 40. Yorkshire (*n*).

The principality of Wales is divided into North and South-Wales. In the first are six counties: 1. Anglesea, 2. Carnarvanshire, 3. Denbighshire, 4. Flintshire, 5. Merionethshire, and 6. Montgomeryshire: and in the latter likewise six, namely, 7. Brecknockshire, 8. Cardiganshire, 9. Carmarthenshire, 10. Glamorganshire, 11. Pembrokeshire, and 12. Radnorshire (*o*).

England and Wales are reckoned to contain 9913 parishes, 25 cities, and 750 towns (*p*).

There are likewise several islands seated about England, and these are included in the counties to which they lie nearest, as Holy Island, Cocket, and Farn in Northumberland; Thanet and Sheppey in Kent; Wight in Hampshire; Portland and Purbeck in Dorsetshire; Lundy Island in Devonshire; the Scilly Islands (19) in Corn-

(*n*) Miede, ch. vi. p. 18.

(*o*) Ibid. P. I. ch. viii.

(*p*) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. I.

(19) The French call them Les Isles Sorlingues. Some will have them to be the Cassiterides of the ancients. The number of them is 145, but most of them very small.

wall. The Isle of Man, which lies in the Irish sea, between England, Scotland, and Ireland, is noted for smugglers, to whom it was a very convenient nest; it belonged formerly to the earl of Derby, from whom it descended to the dukes of Athol (20).

S E C T. IX.

Division of
Scotland.

The south-east parts of Scotland being, for the most part, low and level, and the north-west parts high and mountainous, the former has been called the Lowlands, and the latter the Highlands. Scotland is otherwise, and more particularly, divided into thirty-one shires, and two stewarties. The former are, 1. Aberdeen, 2. Aire, 3. Argyre, 4. Bamf, 5. Berwick, 6. Bute, 7. Caithness, 8. Clackmannan, 9. Cromarty, 10. Dumbritton, or Dumbarton, 11. Dumfries, 12. Edinburgh, or Mid-Lothian, 13. Elgin, 14. Fife, 15. Forfar, or Angus, 16. Haddington, or Constabulary, 17. Inverness, 18. Kincardin, 19. Kinross, 20. Lanerk, 21. Linlithgo, or West-Lothian, 22. Nairn,

One of them is called Scilly, which has given name to the whole cluster; yet St. Mary is the largest and the most fruitful. Miede, P. I. ch. vii.

(20) In order to put a stop to smuggling, which was carried on from this island, to the very great detriment of the customs, the parliament lately purchased the property of the island from the duke of Athol, for 70,000 l. sterling.

23. Peebles, or Tweeddale, 24. Perth, 25. Renfrew, 26. Ros, 27. Roxburg, 28. Selkirk, 29. Stirling, 30. Sutherland, 31. Wigtoun. The stewarties are, 1. Kirkudbright, 2. Orkney, containing the Orkney and Shetland islands (21) (9).

Scotland has likewise belonging to it, a great number of islands along its western coasts, and therefore called the Western Islands, Lat. Hebrides. The largest among these are Lewis, Skey, Bute, and Arran, which constitute the county of Bute, Jura, Isla or Ila, and Mull (r).

S E C T. X.

Great Britain has several considerable dependencies both in Europe and the three other parts of the world. Among the former, the principal is Ireland (22),

Dependen
cies.

(21) The Orkney islands (Lat. Orcades) are twenty-eight in number, of which that of Pomona is the largest. Somewhat more to the northward lie the Shetland islands, of which there are 46. Miede, P. II. ch. ii. All these islands were formerly fiefs under the kings of Norway; but James III. king of Scotland, marrying Margaret, daughter to Christian I. king of Denmark and Norway, these islands were mortgaged for the princess's portion; which having never been paid, are become annexed to the crown of Scotland. Mallet, Hist. de Danemark, Tom. V.

(9) Chamberlayne, P. II. B. I. ch. ii.

(r) Ibid.

(22) The ancients call it Hibernia, though it often occurs under the names of Hierna, Juverna, Iris, Bernia, Oyernia. See Waraei, Antiquit. Hibern. c. i. The inhabi-

which bears the title of a kingdom. Its greatest length, from south to north, is 242 English miles; and its greatest breadth, from east to west, 150. The weather, both in summer and winter, is very temperate, but the air thick and moist, and consequently not very healthy. Ireland breeds abundance of horned cattle and sheep, with plenty of game and wild-fowl: but among other beasts of prey it is pestered with wolves. The sea, the lakes, and rivers, furnish plenty of fish, particularly salmon and herrings. It abounds in bees; but no venomous creature, as snakes, nor so much as spiders * can live there. The country is woody, and with a great many bogs and marshes, yet fruitful, especially in grass and pasture. It likewise affords metals, as lead, tin, iron, and some silver, with several kinds of very good marble. The island in general is divided into four provinces, Connaught, Leinster, Munster, and Ulster; and these again are subdivided into particular counties (s).

To the crown of Great Britain farther belong the islands of Jersey and Guernsey,

whom the natives call it Erin, i. e. Western, and from which the English name of Ireland seems to be derived. Miede, P. III. ch. i.

* With regard to spiders, the author is mistaken; but he found it in Miede and other English writers.

(s) Miede, P. III. ch. ii. iii. iv. p. 431—443.

with

with two smaller, Alderney and Sark, all on the coast of Normandy; and these are memorials of the English having formerly been in possession of that duchy (*t*).

Other European possessions of the English are, Gibraltar in Spain, and the island of Minorca, the harbour of which, Port-Mahon, is accounted one of the largest and best in Europe. These places are not only of advantage to the English in their trade, but very convenient for their maintaining considerable fleets in the Mediterranean, thereby keeping in awe both the Italian states and the corsairs of Africa (*23*).

The English African and East-India trade II. In Africa. has given them an opportunity of making settlements and conquests in those parts. Their possessions in Africa are Cape Coast (*24*), with several other places and forts (*u*); Fort James on the river Gambia (*25*); likewise Fort St. Louis, with

(*t*) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. xiii. p. 287.

(*23*) Armstrong's History of the Island of Minorca, London, 1752, 8vo.

(*24*) Cabo Corso, as the place was called by the Portuguese its first possessors.

(*u*) History of the Gold Coast in the Modern Univ. Hist. Vol. XVII. p. 15, 64, 72, 75, &c.

(*25*) This, together with Cape Coast and other places, belonged to the English African company, which kept its own garrisons in them; but the government has taken all those places under its immediate direction, and they are garrisoned by the crown.

Podor, and Galam on the river Senegal (26); and the island of St. Helena, in the Atlantic ocean (27).

III. In the
East-Indies.

The English East-India company has, of late, greatly increased its power and opulence in those countries. Its principal settlements are, the island of Bombay, Tillichery, and Anjengo on the coast of Malabar; Fort St. David, formerly called Tegepatan, and Fort St. George at Madras, on the coast of Coromandel; Fort William at Calcutta in Bengal; and Fort Marlborough and Sillebar in the island of Sumatra (x).

IV. In A-
merica,

The British dominions in America are of such an extent as far to exceed the mother-country, being the most considerable and best part of North-America, and containing the following countries, 1. Hudsons-Bay (28), 2. The island of Newfound-

(26) These places France ceded to Great Britain at the Peace of Paris in 1763.

(27) This island, of which the Dutch dispossessed the Portuguese, at present belongs to the English East-India company.

(x) History of the English East-India company, in the Mod. Univ. Vol. X. § 8.

(28) From hence it was that the English, in 1746 and 1747 took their departure for discovering a north-west passage into the South-Sea; and for that purpose had fitted out two ships. Of this enterprize two very different accounts have been published; the first is, a Voyage to Hudson's-Bay, in the year 1746 and 1747, for the discovering a North-West Passage, by Henry Ellis, London 1748, 8vo. the other an Account of a Voyage for the discovery of a North-West

land,

land (29), 3. Nova Scotia (30), 4. New-England (31), 5. New-York (32), 6. New-Jersey, 7. Pennsylvania (33), 8. Maryland, 9. Virginia (34), 10. Carolina (35), 11. New-Georgia (36), 12. The Bermudas or

Passage by Hudson's-Streights to the western and southern ocean of America, performed in the years 1746 and 1747 in the ship *California*, by the Clerk of the *California*, London, 1748, 2 vols. 8vo. The first writer produces several proofs of the probability of a north-west passage; and the latter absolutely denies it.

(29) The French call this island *Terre Neuve*. It was first discovered in 1497, in the time of Henry VII. by John Cabot, a Venetian.

(30) The French, who ceded this country, together with Hudson's-Bay and Newfoundland, at the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, call it *Acadie*.

(31) This is a very extensive province, and divided into four governments, 1. *Massachusetts-Bay*, 2. *Connecticut*, 3. *New-Hampshire*, and 4. *Rhode-Island*.

(32) This province was formerly called the *New Netherlands*, and belonged to the *Dutch West-India company*, from whom the English, having taken it in the year 1664, being then at war with that nation, gave it the name of *New-York*, in honour of James duke of York, at that time lord-high-admiral of England. *Campbell's Lives of British Admirals*, P. I. p. 464.

(33) *Pennsylvania* had its name from the justly celebrated quaker *William Penn*, who carried colonies of his sect thither, made many excellent regulations for its peace and prosperity, and divided it into six shires, namely, *Philadelphia*, *Buckingham*, *Chester*, *Newcastle*, *Kent*, and *Suffex*.

(34) *Sir Walter Raleigh* first took possession of this country in the year 1584, and queen *Elizabeth* gave it its name. *Campbell's Lives of British Admirals*, Vol. I. p. 348.

(35) This country was so called from *Charles IX.* king of France, under whom the French first settled in it, but were afterwards driven out by the English.

(36) *Georgia* was so called from king *George II.* under whom this colony was founded by emigrations of several foreign people, chiefly Germans.

Summer

Summer Islands (37), 13. The island of Cape Breton, 14. Canada (38), and 15. Florida (39).

All the preceding countries and colonies, except New-Jersey, which belongs to the earls of Granville and Berkley, and Pennsylvania, the property of the heirs of William Penn; and Maryland, that of lord Baltimore, are immediately subject to the crown. They all lie in one continued tract of land to the extent of 2500 English miles, from north-east to south-west. The most northern parts afford great quantities of furs, and particularly beaver; and the cod-fishery in those seas is an article of very great advantage. The more southern parts produce

(37) These islands were first discovered by a Spaniard, John Bermudo, in the year 1609. Sir George Summers being driven thither by a storm, the English settled in the islands.

For a more particular acquaintance with the British possessions in America, may be consulted, *The British Empire in America, containing the History of the Discovery, Settlement, Progress, and State of the British Colonies on the Continent and Islands of America*, London 1741, 2 vols. 8vo. by John Oldmixon; and a *Summary, historical and political, of the first planting, progressive Improvements, and present State of the British Settlements in North-America*, by William Douglas, London 1760, 2 vols. 8vo.

(38) This and Cape Breton are conquests from the French, and ceded to Great Britain at the peace of Paris in 1763; by the same treaty, the river Mississippi has been made the boundary between the British and French possessions in North-America.

(39) This country Spain transferred to Great Britain at the peace of Paris.

wheat,

wheat, rice, tobacco, silk, timber, and other requisites for ship-building, iron, &c.

Besides North-America, the English are possessed of several of the Leeward islands, namely, Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Montserrat, Nevis, Granada, together with the Granadillas, and the Neutral Islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tabago (40).

Most of these islands are very fertile, exporting great quantities of sugar (41), rum, cotton, coffee, cocoa, ginger, pimento, indigo, conserves, citron-water, and several other commodities.

Immense are the profits accruing to Great Britain from its colonies. They are indeed the chief source of its wealth and naval power, by reason of the extensive commerce to and from these several settlements, and the numerous shipping it employs (y). Most of them owe their origin and increase to the intestine troubles in England, and

(40) These last islands, together with Grenada and the Granadillas, remained to Great Britain by the peace of Paris in 1763.

(41) The island of Jamaica particularly abounds in sugar. Its number of sugar-mills in the year 1670, was no less than sixty, and made every year two millions of pounds of sugar, but the present quantity is supposed to be ten times as much. *Journal Oeconom.* 1760. *Hamburg Magazine*, Vol. XXV. p. 633.

(y) Voyez *Confiderations sur le Commerce & la Navigation de la Grande Bretagne*, Ch. XXXI. p. 152, & suiv.

oppressions exercised against the non-conformists in the seventeenth century ; great numbers, and among them some persons of birth and substance, quitting their native country, for the sake of that quiet and liberty of conscience which were denied them at home (z). Some will pretend to foresee that the new world is, at present, for shaking off the yoke of the old ; and that the English colonies will break the ice, and set an example to those of other European nations (a).

S E C T. XI.

Revolutions
in Great
Britain.

The ancient Britons were indisputably a branch of the Celts (42). Julius Cæsar, having subdued Gaul, made two expedi-

(z) See Hume's Hist. of Great Britain, Vol. I. p. 134, and Vol. II. p. 449. Lettres de Mr. Le Blanc, Tom. III. Lettr. LXXXV. p. 436, 437.

(a) See Hume, Vol. I. p. 135. Le Blanc, Tom. III. Lettr. LXXXV. p. 437.

(42) The Celts were descended from Gomer, Japhet's eldest son, and a branch of the Gomerians ; whom afterwards the Greeks and Romans, by a mutilation of names usual among them, called Cimmerians and Cimbrians. From these Gomerians are likewise issued the Britons, as their ancient and more proper name evidently shews. The appellation of Britain and Briton, or Brittany, being given to the country and the inhabitants by foreigners, whilst they termed themselves Cumri, or, rather, Gomri. And this appellation is still used by the Welch, who undoubtedly are descended from the ancient Britons, calling a man of their nation Gomro, a woman Gomreas, and their language Gomra. Lewis's Hist. of Great Britain, Ch. V. p. 27.

tions

tions to Great-Britain, but without retaining any conquests. Under the emperor Claudius, and Vespasian and his successors, the southern part of the island was reduced to a Roman province; and this its enemies could the more easily accomplish, the inhabitants, instead of one common government, being divided into a great number of separate communities, totally independent of each other (43), and frequently at variance,

A. C.

44
34

The Romans maintained their sovereignty in Britain till the fifth century; when, on the declension of the western empire, under 448. the emperor Honorius, they quitted it of their own accord. But the Britons being afterwards molested by their neighbours the Scots and Picts, and unable of themselves to make head against their irruptions, called in the Saxons and Angles, who dwelt in Holstein along the Elbe. They immediately set out for Britain under two leaders, 449. Hengist and Horsa, and indeed effectually protected the Britons against their enemies: but, at length, they turned their arms against the Britons themselves, and, after a very bloody war, forced them to fly and seek

(43) *In commune non consulunt. Rarus duabus tribusue civitatibus ad propulsandum commune periculum conventus. Ita dum singuli pugnant, universi vincuntur. Tacit. in Agricola, Cap. XII.*

318.

refuge in Armorica or Bretagne, and Cambria, afterwards called Wales. The Saxons and Angles gradually erected the seven kingdoms of Kent, Suffex, Westsex, Effex, Northumberland, the East-Angles, and Mercia; which, however, kept up some harmony together, and were called the Heph-tarchy. At length they were all united under Egbert, king of the West-Saxons, who being by descent an Angle, ordered the whole country to be called by the general name of England.

1003.

1035.

1039.

1041.

But this dominion of the Anglo-Saxon kings was, in the beginning of the eleventh century, interrupted by the Danes, whose king, Sueno, made himself master of England. His son Canute maintained his possession, and left it to his son Harold; who had for successor his brother Hardiknute. His death put an end to the Danish sovereignty in England, and Edward the Confessor, a son of king Ethelred, who had been dethroned by Sueno, reascended the throne of his ancestors.

1066.

Edward dying without issue, Edgar Atheling, the lawful heir to the throne, was superseded, and Harold, earl of Kent, chosen king; but soon after, William, duke of Normandy, landing in England with a great force, to support his claim to the

crown,

crown, totally defeated Harold's army in a battle near Hastings, in which Harold himself likewise lost his life. The whole kingdom immediately submitted to the conqueror, who treated his subjects with great haughtiness and severity. His son and successor William II. trod in his steps; but Henry I. who ascended the throne on his brother William's demise, restored the English their ancient liberties. It was under this king that began those wars with France, which continued for some hundreds of years with little intermission (44). His daughter Matilda, was, by the states of the kingdom, declared heiress even in his life-time: but Stephen, earl of Blois, his sister's son, supplanted her.

After his death, however, Henry II. son to the said princess Matilda and Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou, ascended the throne. He was one of England's most potent princes, being possessed of many considerable provinces in France, as Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, Guyenne, Poitou, and Saintonge; and farther reduced

(44) Depuis ce moment (la guerre entre Louis VI. & Henri I.) jusqu'au regne de Charles VII. on ne vit plus qu'une alternative de guerres & de treves entre la France & l'Angleterre. On compte plus de cent vingt traités tous rompus presqu'aussitôt que signés. Velly, Hist. de France, Tom. III. p. 13.

1172.

Ireland under his dominion. His son, Richard I. undertook a croisade to Palestine, the consequence of which was, that, on his return through Germany, he was surprised by the archduke of Austria, who, on account of a former quarrel, confined him in a castle. That expedition likewise produced a war with France, which was carried on very unsuccessfully by John, his brother and successor, who lost a great part of the English dominions in that country. Not less unfortunate was the same prince in his disputes with the see of Rome, and the great men of the kingdom. The former reduced him to a state of vassalage, and the latter even dethroned him. His son, Henry III. however, succeeded him, and, by the like unprosperous turn of fortune, was obliged to make a formal cession of Normandy and Anjou to the French. His more fortunate son, king Edward I. besides reducing the principality of Wales, acquired likewise the feudal sovereignty over Scotland; but his successor, Edward II. who, after a very tempestuous government, was deposed, could not maintain it; and his son Edward III. resigned it. This king, one of the greatest and most celebrated that ever swayed the English sceptre, was so successful as to make good his claim to the crown

1213.

1216.

1259.

1329.

1357.

crown of France, in virtue of his mother Isabella. For, after a long and victorious war, he recovered, by the peace of Breigny, besides Guyenne, which he was in possession of before the war, as an old English province, Poitou, Saintonge, Agenois, Perigueux, Bigorre, Angoumois, Rouergue, Ponthieu, Calais, Guines. But this peace was of no long continuance, and the greater part of these glorious conquests were lost in a fresh war under Edward III. ^{1359.} himself, and partly under his unfortunate grandson Richard II. who, after a formal deposition, was murdered in prison, and his cousin, Henry duke of Lancaster, chosen ^{1400.} king by the parliament, under the title of Henry IV. His son, Henry V. renewing the claim on France, waged war very successfully against that crown; and marrying ^{1415.} the princess Catherine, daughter to Charles VI. king of France, was, by a treaty made ^{1420.} on that occasion, nominated successor to the French monarchy, of which he already had conquered a considerable part; but he died ^{1422.} in the midst of his glory. His son, Henry VI. whom he had left heir to two kingdoms, aged only nine months, lost all the late and former conquests in France, Calais alone excepted; he was deprived ^{1454.} of the crown of England, which he in-

1472.

1483.

herited from his father and grandfather, by Edward IV. duke of York, after a great deal of bloodshed (45) and frequent vicissitudes; Henry being sometimes on the throne, and sometimes in prison; where, at length, a period was put to his life by the hand of a murderer. The young king, Edward V. and Richard, duke of York, sons to Edward IV. were murdered by his unnatural brother, Richard, duke of Gloucester; and this wretch was acknowledged king, by the name of Richard III.

But he did not long enjoy the fruits of his crime. Henry VII. earl of Richmond, and descended from the house of Lancaster by his mother Margaret, overthrew Richard at the battle of Bosworth-field, in which that usurper lost his life, fighting with the most intrepid bravery; and the victor gained the English throne, which he secured by marrying Elizabeth, daughter to Edward IV. This wise and parsimonious monarch was succeeded by his son, Henry VIII. a voluptuous and cruel prince; who, for the pope's opposing his divorce, threw off all submission to the Roman See, and, as an

1534.

(45) In this civil war betwixt the houses of Lancaster and York, commonly called the Red and White Rose War, and which lasted thirty years, were fought thirteen pitched battles; and above a hundred thousand men, and twenty-two princes of the royal family were slain or put to death.

ad-

additional affront, assumed the title of king ^{1543.} of Ireland. He was succeeded by his son, Edward VI. under whom the Reformation was first introduced into England. He died ^{1553.} very young, before it could make any considerable progress; and Mary, his sister and successor, restored popery; but engaging in a war with France, to gratify her husband, Philip II. king of Spain, she lost Calais, the sole remainder of all the English conquests in France. Queen Elizabeth, her sister, fully ^{1558.} established the Reformation, and by her prudence, not less than by her good fortune, maintained herself on the throne against many, foreign and domestic, open and clandestine, enemies. She was the first English monarch who sent colonies to America; and under her prosperous government were laid the foundations of the English commerce and marine, which at present make so respectable a figure.

James VI. king of Scotland, being next heir to the English throne, ascended it on her demise, as sovereign of both kingdoms, ^{1603.} by the name and title of James I. king of Great Britain. His exalted ideas of the royal prerogative often occasioned misunderstandings between him and the English parliament. His successor, Charles I. was for carrying his father's maxims into execution,

1642. cution, and proceeded to some extraordinary stretches of power. This gave occasion to a civil war, which terminated in his being tried as a malefactor, sentenced to die, and publicly beheaded.

1649. The English parliament, or rather the party which pretended to represent it, immediately proceeded to abolish royalty, and turned the monarchy into a commonwealth. But its general, Oliver Cromwell, suddenly put a period to this new form of government; and under the title of Protector, took full possession of the sovereignty, which he exercised in a very arbitrary manner. What contributed not a little to the establishment of his power, was the success of his wars against the Dutch, and against Spain. In the first, he acquired for England the honour of the salute; and in the second, the island of Jamaica and Dunkirk.

1654. On his demise, the government falling into a kind of anarchy, Charles II. eldest son to the late unfortunate king, was invited to the throne; but, instead of consulting the inclinations and welfare of his people, he closed entirely with French measures, and at length came to affect an unlimited prerogative. His brother and successor, James II. not only pursued such an

1660. 1685. un-

constitutional career, but likewise endeavoured to introduce the Roman Catholic religion ; which cost him and his family the ^{1688.} crown.

The English and the Scotch conferred it ^{1689.} on their deliverer, William III. prince of Orange, and his consort Mary, eldest daughter of the late abdicated king. By this revolution, the British constitution has been placed on a more secure basis, and the administration conducted more agreeably to the real interest of the state ; so that Great Britain has made a far more important figure in Europe, than under the Stuart line. King William died soon after he had procured the protestant succession to be set- ^{1701.} tled, and had for successor, Princess Anne, ^{1702.} second daughter to king James II. In her reign England and Scotland were united into one political body ; and the war for the Spanish succession, which began at her ^{1707.} accession to the crown, was carried on with signal vigour and success : but she concluded it by a precipitate peace at Utrecht, to the ^{1713.} great detriment of the common cause, and her allies. However, for itself Great Britain obtained Acadia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's-Bay, together with the demolition of the fortifications and harbour of Dunkirk ; Spain at the same time ceding to it Gibralt-

tar and the island of Minorca. The secret view of that hasty and inglorious peace appeared from the subsequent measures, which tended to the overthrow of the protestant succession; and her death alone frustrated the consequences. But this princess had ever been so much in the power of others, that neither the good nor evil of her reign can properly be imputed to her. She had for successor, George-Lewis, elector and duke of Brunswick-Luneburg, who reigned happily, under the name of George I. and both in war and peace maintained the dignity of his crown throughout all Europe. His son, George II. persevered in his father's honourable maxims. On the death of the emperor Charles VI. he supported the house of Austria with great vigour; and in his last war with France, concerning the limits of the two nations in North-America, he opposed its pretensions as unjust. This war, which Great Britain alone carried on, both by land and sea, against France, and afterwards against Spain, in all the four parts of the world, raised the reputation and fortune of the British arms to the highest pitch, and king George II. died amidst victories and triumphs. His grandson, George III. availed himself with great prudence, and, at the same time, moderation,

1714.

1760.

of the advantage obtained over the enemy for promoting a peace, consistent with the honour and advantage of Great Britain. 1763.

France, accordingly, gave up all Canada, and the islands of Cape Breton, Granada, and the Granadillas, with the French forts and settlements on Senegal River; and Spain ceded Florida.

S E C T. XII.

Britain has been conquered by four foreign nations, and thus filled with inhabitants of very different manners and dispositions. The old Britons became intermixed with their conquerors the Romans; but both were afterwards driven out of the country, or extirpated, by the Angles and Saxons; though, in all probability, a part of them remained. To the Angles and Saxons, succeeded the Danes, great numbers of whom, on occasion of their frequent descents, settled in England, and especially under the government of the Danish kings. William I. brought over a multitude of Normans, and Henry II. swarms of his countrymen from his French dominions. During the Spanish oppressions in the Netherlands, the protestants fled over to England; as did great numbers of French reformed, on the revocation of the

Origin of
the English.

edict of Nantes. Thus the people of England consist of a conflux of several nations. The main stem of which, however, are the Angles and Saxons, but with a great mixture of Danish, Norman, and French blood, and some British and Roman (46).

The Welsh. The inhabitants of the principality of Wales are undoubtedly descended from the ancient Britons, who sought a refuge in this mountainous country from the fury of the Saxons.

The Scots. The Lowland Scotch are a people compounded of Picts, Saxons, Danes, and French; but the Highlanders are of Irish extraction.

The Irish. The Irish, probably, are originated from the ancient Britons (*b*); but, besides these, after the reduction of the island by Henry II. of England, great numbers of English repaired thither; and in later times many more; so that the present inhabitants of Ire-

(46) The traces of these several descents Mr. Muralt thinks he still perceives, in some of the vices and inclinations prevalent among the modern English. The character he is pleased to give them is this: "They seem to me still to retain something of the several nations who have conquered them; they drink like Saxons; they delight in hunting like the Danes; litigiousness and false witnessing they hold from the Normans; and their fondness for bloody spectacles they have inherited from the Romans." Lettr. sur les Anglois, I. p. 32.

(*b*) Ware's Antiquities of Ireland, cap. ii.

land consist partly of original Irish, and partly of English.

S E C T. XIII.

The inhabitants of the southern part of Britain are generally of a middle stature, and well shaped ; withal strong, and fit for violent exercises, of which they are likewise very fond ; riding, hunting (47), horse-racing (48), wrestling (49), being their favourite pastimes. Some of their qualities and manners take their rise from the form of government, and the freedom and liberty they enjoy under it. Their liberty shews itself, not only in their behaviour, but likewise in their way of thinking ; which shakes off prejudices, and exerts itself to the great improvement of their understandings, in which they gene-

Character
of the
English.

(47) High and low, clergy and laymen, men and women, are mighty lovers of hunting. Le Blanc, Tom. II. Lettr. XLVI. Some country gentlemen take a particular delight in fox-hunting, and are therefore called Fox-hunters ; which, however, is an appellation of no great credit even among the English. Le Blanc, Tom. II. Lettr. L.

(48) This is likewise a favourite diversion among all ranks and both sexes. Le Blanc, Tom. III. Lettr. LXVI.

(49) Here may be classed the common way of fighting with fists, called boxing, with which the populace decide their quarrels, though persons of rank, at least Gentlemen, sometimes become very expert at this and the like exercises, and make no difficulty of putting themselves on a footing with a common handicraftsman or porter. Muralt, Lettr. III. Le Blanc, Tom. III. Lettr. LXVI.

rally

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

rally surpass the bulk of other people (*c*). Another good consequence of their liberty is, that the great pay no servile homage to the court, nor the commonalty to their superiors (*d*); who likewise are not so haughty and imperious as in other countries; so that the difference between the high and low is not so conspicuous in England (*e*). Their love of freedom, and the affluence in which the English live, likewise produce in them a warm love for their country (50): but, on the other hand, this very freedom and affluence is apt to fill them with pride, self-conceit, and contempt of other nations (*f*), particularly of the French, whom they likewise hate extremely (51); the commonalty are even rude and insolent (*g*).

(*c*) Muralt, Lettr. I. and IV.

(*d*) Ibid. Lettr. I. and III.

(*e*) Lettr. III.

(50) This is a virtue almost peculiar to the English, and which they distinguish by the name of Public Spirit. From this motive, private persons often cheerfully advance a considerable part of their substance to promote the public good of their country. To this patriotic zeal, England owes many great undertakings and excellent foundations. Dungeuil's Observations on the Advantages and Disadvantages of France and Great Britain relatively to trade, p. 107, 108.

(*f*) Muralt, Lettr. I. and IV. Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. II. and III.

(51) Muralt, Lettr. III. Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lett. V. The latter derives this hatred from the many wars between the two nations, and their jealousy in point of trade. Lettr. V.

(*g*) Muralt, Lettr. V.

Another

Another effect of their freedom is caprice and humour; and hence their disposition for extraordinaries and peculiarities (*b*), in which they sometimes run strange lengths (52). Good cheer is common among all ranks (53), and a consequence of their happy situation and easy circumstances; the acquisition of which is a reigning passion among the English, as procuring to the possessor distinguished consideration, respect, and importance (*i*). But this wealth proves, in many, the parent of vanity, ostentation (54), profuseness, and immorality*.

Other lineaments in the English character are derived from their choleric and

(*b*) Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. XI.

(52) Instances of this are to be seen in Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. XI. Among these is the custom of English noblemen and gentlemen, to dress themselves like their servants. Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. IV.

(53) The English are great lovers of good eating and drinking. Beef is their most usual and favourite dish, and generally they make no great account of variety, and the delicacies of cookery. Miede, P. I. ch. xii.

(*i*) Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. LXXXVI.

(54) The English indeed, are, in general, not so much given to parade as their neighbours the French; yet the show, which not only persons of quality and wealth, but likewise the commonalty, affect at their funerals, is something extravagant, and borders on ostentation. Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. XIII.

* Among these is gluttony and excessive drinking of spirituous liquors, with which the common people are overrun. Estimate of the Manners and Principles of the Times, P. III. § 8.

saturnine

saturnine complexion. So far from having the vivacity of the French, or their sociality and frankness towards strangers, they are rather shy and reserved; but the greater stress is to be laid upon their friendship, when once a person has won their hearts (*k*). They are generous, benevolent, sincere, courageous, resolute, and bold, consequently make excellent soldiers (55); which they have sufficiently shewn in so many wars both by sea and land. They must, however, be well clothed and fed, as living too plentifully at home to bear much hardship (*l*). They are extremely violent in their passions (56), and, particularly, their anger borders on rage (*m*). A kind of savageness frequently prevails in their manners, manifesting itself in the bloody fights and diversions usual among them, and in which particularly the commonalty take such delight (57). Their natural ingenuity

(*k*) Muralt, Lettr. IV.

(55) The English, with all their courage, are not fond of foreign campaigns; neither is the military state in any high esteem among them. Muralt, Lettr. I.

(*l*) Miede, P. I. ch. x.

(56) And this in love no less than hatred; for certainly it is to the violence of the former passion, or avarice, that must be imputed the many unequal, and sometimes indecent marriages seen in England.

(*m*) Muralt, Lettr. I. p. 27.

(57) As cock-fighting, throwing at cocks, bull and bear-baiting, prize-fighting; but the second, and especially the last of these entertainments are growing obsolete. Muralt,

gives

gives them an aptitude for all arts and sciences; and they make use of it even in games of chance (58), and in other fortuitous events, determining the degrees of probability by arithmetical calculations. But their melancholy disposition makes them discontented (59) and splenetic (60), though the latter be rather a distemper of the body than the mind (6), and sometimes terminates in suicide (61).

The English, however, are very fond of diversions and entertainments, and have a great variety of them, as plays, operas, concerts, balls, masquerades, assemblies, routs, clubs (62), horse-races (63), and

Letter III. Le Blanc, Letter LXVI. Alberti's Letters on the State of Religion and the Sciences of Great Britain (a German work), Letter XXII.

(58) Play among them is rather a study than a social amusement. Le Blanc, Letter LXXXI.

(59) Being seldom satisfied with their condition, they are apt to run into parties and commotions. Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. I.

(60) This indisposition the English call the Spleen, the French les Vapeurs. Le Blanc treats of it at large, Tom. I. Lettr. XXVII.

(6) Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. XXVII.

(61) Suicide is more common among the English than any other nation; and sometimes they proceed to that unnatural extremity from trifling causes. Muralt, Lettr. III. The frequency of suicide among them, may likewise be an effect of that natural undauntedness with which they meet death, and is observable even in malefactors at their execution. Muralt, Lettr. III.

(62) These meetings are generally calculated only for eating, drinking, smoking, and playing at cards.

(63) These are one of the greatest diversions of the English, and periodically exhibited on downs, near several places;

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innumerable others (*p*). Amidst all their self-conceit and pertinacity in opinions and sentiments, they often vary their fashions (*q*); and as much as they hate and despise the French, yet in dress and furniture they affect whatever is French (*r*). But this is not the only contradiction in their character (*s*).

The English are likewise not without their *Petits Maîtres*, but directly the reverse of the French (64). The English women are handsome and modest; but, so far from vivacity, they are rather bashful (65). They are very fond of dress, and delight in shewing themselves publicly in their finery (*t*). The husbands are generally so indulgent to their wives, that they are looked upon to be the happiest in the world; and though

but the principal are those of Newmarket, where prodigious sums are betted; so that the horse which comes in first, often brings his owner a little fortune. *Le Blanc*, Tom. III. Lettr. LXXX. and *Alberti*, Lettr. XXII.

(*p*) *Chamberlayne*, P. I. B. III. ch. vii.

(*q*) *Le Blanc*, Tom. I. Lettr. XVIII.

(*r*) *Ibid.* Tom. III. Lettr. LXXXV.

(*s*) *Muralt*, Lettr. I. *De Real Science du Gouvernem.*

(64) *Le Blanc*, Lettr. IV. after a comparison between the French and English *Petits Maîtres*, concludes, "That as the English call the French Monkeys, the French, in return, may call the English Bears."

(65) *Le Blanc*, Tom. I. Lettr. VII. attributes this to the men, as keeping company too little with the fair sex.

(*t*) *Muralt*, Lettr. I. and III.

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the English laws, in some cases (66), scarce do them justice; yet in others they are as favourable, and allow them very extraordinary privileges (67).

The Scots are tall and well made, courteous and brave, being found in all European armies. They are likewise very temperate in eating and drinking, not departing from these virtues even in foreign countries, where bad examples are set them (*x*). But this is chiefly applicable to the Lowlanders, the Highlanders being extremely different from them in their way of living and manners, and, like their country, rough and wild (68).

Among the Irish there is rather greater difference than among the Scotch. Some have admitted the English laws and cus-

(66) The woman's person, and all her effects, are subject to the power of the husband; the murder of a husband is petty treason in the eye of the law; consequently the punishment is that of being burned alive. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. v.

(67) When a wife is delivered of a child during a long absence of her husband, though for years, he is obliged to own the child for his, if, during the whole time, he was within the island of Great Britain, and has never crossed the seas. Likewise, he is under the same obligation, if the wife, after marriage, brings into the world a child she had by another man before marriage. Chamberlayne, P. I. Muralt, Lettr. V.

(*x*) Chamberlayne, P. II. B. I. ch. iv. Miede, P. II. ch. viii.

(68) With regard to the manners of the Scotch Highlanders, see Letters concerning Scotland, Vol. II. particularly Letters XIX. XX. XXI. XXII. XXIII. XXIV. XXV.

toms, and these are a civilized well-behaved people; but the others retain their old customs and ways; which not being without some mixture of barbarism, are, by the English, known by the appellation of the Wild Irish (*y*).

S E C T. XIV.

English
Language.

The English language is derived from the several nations who, after conquering the country, settled in it. The Romans introduced the Latin; the Saxons and Angles, the German; the Danes, the Danish; the Normans and French, the French language; and of a mixture of all these, has gradually been formed the present English tongue, with a small remainder of ancient British words. It remained for some hundred years almost the only speech of the commonalty, consequently rugged and irregular (69). Under queen Elizabeth, the

(*y*) Miede, P. III. ch. ii.

(69) The cause of this was the use of the Latin and French languages; for, besides the learned using the former in their compositions, all grants, patents, and public instruments, were drawn up in that language, and so continued till under George II. William I. caused schools to be set up for teaching the Norman and French, and the laws to be couched in those languages, which was observed till the time of Edward III. All pleadings likewise were discussed in the Norman dialect; and it is but very lately that this practice has been discontinued. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. I. ch. v. Miede, P. I. ch. x. And to this day some parliamentary forms are in French. Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. XII.

use

use of the English became something more general, the Bible being translated into it, and a great number of learned books written in it. The many poets, since that time, have likewise contributed greatly to the improvement of the language (70); though without any strict observance of rules and the refinements of criticism (71). Several persons of learning have, on this account, wished that an English academy were erected on the footing of that of France (2). The English, however, is looked on in other countries, and even in France, as a learned language (a).

The inhabitants of the southern part of ^{Of the Scots,} Scotland likewise speak English, only pronouncing it something different from the English. But the speech of the Highlanders is totally different (72), agreeing mostly with the Irish, and by the people is called Albanach.

The English is likewise understood al- ^{Of the Irish,} most all over Ireland, except among the

(70) Waller was the first who wrote English with regularity and elegance.

(71) The English language having scarce any critical work on it, except Johnson's Dictionary, the abbé Le Blanc will hardly allow it to be more than the rough draught of a language. Tom. I. Lettr. VII.

(2) Le Blanc, Lettr. LXV. Voltaire, Tom. II.

(a) Ibid. Tom. II. Lettr. LXII.

(72) The names and figures of their characters may be seen in the Letters on Scotland, Vol. II. p. 128.

wild Irish, who retain their old dialect, which is held to be the offspring of the old British and the Biscayan (c).

S E C T XV.

Number of
inhabitants
in Great
Britain.

The number of inhabitants in Great Britain has been differently computed by different writers. Some reckon in England five, others five and a half, or six millions; and in England, Scotland, and Ireland together, seven or eight millions (73). This computation, however, seems something too small; for, among other English writers, Sir William Petty, who was so well versed in political arithmetic, has, with no small probability, allowed England above seven millions of inhabitants, even in the former century (74). Now, supposing,

(c) Miegé, P. III. ch. ii.

(73) Mr. De Real, *Science du Gouv.* P. I. Tom. II. p. 340. computes the inhabitants of England at near six millions; those of Scotland at between seven and eight hundred thousand persons; and those of Ireland at three hundred thousand; but this last computation is manifestly very much too low.

(74) Sir William Petty computes, from the bills of mortality in the year 1682, that London had then 669,930 inhabitants; and the taxes of this city amounting to an eleventh part of the taxes of the whole country, he computes that England contains eleven times as many inhabitants, or seven millions three hundred and sixty nine thousand. He adds, that the accounts of the poll-tax and tax on horses, and the number of communicants, perfectly coincide with this computation. See his *Essays on Political Arithmetic*,

and it may well be supposed, that England, since that time, has not decreased in inhabitants, and those in Scotland reckoned at only a million and a half (75), Great Britain will at least contain eight millions and a half. Ireland, and the other European dependencies, may be conjectured at a million and a half (76); consequently, the total of British subjects in Europe, amounts to ten millions (77).

So far from expecting a greater increase, a diminution is rather to be apprehended; as, exclusive of the navy and army in war time, the shipping and trade, together with the American possessions now so much enlarged, and the trading places in the two other parts of the world, require a great number of hands. But, as the English receive all foreigners into their colonies, and

p. 12, 13. According to an account printed in 1693, the houses in England were reckoned at 1,175,951; and allowing six persons to each house, the whole number amounted to 7,055,706. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. I. ch. v.

(75) This is Chamberlayne's calculation, P. II. B. I. ch. iv.

(76) Sir William Petty, in his time, computed the inhabitants of Ireland at 1,200,000. *Essays on Political Arithmetic*.

(77) The inhabitants of the American colonies were, many years ago, reckoned at a million and a half; and these, since the last peace, have considerably increased; so that including those in the East-India and African settlements, the British subjects out of Europe may well be computed at two millions.

numbers of French, German, Danish, and Swedish protestants, come over to England, and settle there, and in the colonies, these supplies recruit the losses, and prevent a sensible diminution (*d*).

S E C T. XVI.

Nobility
and gentry
in England.

The English nation may be divided into three classes; namely, the higher and lower noblesse, and the commonalty (78): but the laws of England acknowledge only two orders, the nobles and the commons; understanding by the nobility, only the higher noblesse, including the lower along with the commons (79). The several ranks and titles of the higher noblesse are, 1. Duke; 2. Marquis; 3. Earl; 4. Viscount; and 5. Baron (80). These are all stiled Lords, and

(*d*) *Susmilch's Divine Oeconomy*, Vol. II. § 383.

(78) None, except the higher noblesse, are called Noble, or Noblemen; the word nobility being limited to that class, whilst the word gentry denotes the inferior. The word Commons or Commonalty comprehends all the other inhabitants of England. *Chamberlayne*, P. I. Book III. ch. iv.

(79) With this regulation of the English laws agrees the division of the parliament into the upper and lower house, the house of lords and the house of commons; only the high noblesse sit in the upper house, and all the members of the lower house are commons; and though the sons of dukes, marquisses, earls, &c. are frequently members of this house, yet, in the eye of the law, they are only commoners. *Chamberlayne*, *ibid*.

(80) Under the title of Barons was formerly understood, the high noblesse in general; and this title was common to

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the king creates them at pleasure by patent, and generally with the title of some town or county; which descends to their eldest sons, and afterwards to their other male issue. In a few families, the female heirs are, by a particular privilege, intitled to it, on the extinction of the males (81). They are all the king's vassals, and take an oath of fealty to him; and, in token of their vassalage, perform certain services. As a duke, marquis, and earl, generally bear all the inferior titles, the father's second title is given to the eldest son. All sons of dukes and marquisses, and the eldest son of an earl, are, by the courtesy of England, stiled Lords (82), and the daughters Ladies (83). All dukes, marquisses,

all who held lands in fee of the crown; but Edward I. limited it to those whom the king called to parliament. The title of Earl was, from William I. to Edward III. the principal, and at first conferred only on the royal family; and to this day the king terms earls, Cousins. The title of Duke was first used under Edward III. who created his eldest son duke of Cornwall; and this title has ever since remained to the king's eldest son. The title of Marquis was first used by king Richard II. creating Robert de Vere marquis of Dublin. The first Viscount in England was John Beaumont, so created by Henry VI. Selden's Titles of Honour.

(81) This privilege is annexed to the title of duke of Marlborough. Tindal's Contin. of Rapin, Vol. XVI.

(82) The laws neither allow them the title of lords nor the father's second title. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. iii. and ch. iv.

(83) But no son of a viscount and baron is called lord, nor a daughter, lady. Miede, P. I. ch. xvi.

earls, viscounts, and barons (papists excepted), are, in virtue of their titles, peers of the realm, and sit and vote in parliament (e) : they are accounted the king's hereditary counsellors, and by law enjoy some particular privileges (84).

Nobility was, anciently, a peculiar reward of great services ; but under James I. it was made saleable, and a particular rate set on each title (85).

The lower noblesse, or gentry, are, 1. Baronets (86) ; 2. Knights (87) ; 3. Es-

(e) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. iii. Micege, P. I. ch. xvi.

(84) Among the privileges of the upper noblesse, are these, that their persons cannot be taken into custody on any other than high treason, or some great crime ; in criminal causes they can be tried only by their peers ; and he who spreads any reports injurious to their character, incurs the penalty of Scandalum Magnatum. Concerning these and other privileges, see Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. iii.

(85) A baron paid 10,000l. for his patent, a viscount 15,000l. and an earl 20,000l.

(86) These were first created by James I. to the number of two hundred, each paying one thousand pound sterling. This was an expedient of the earl of Salisbury, lord-high-treasurer, for supplying the king's profuseness. Hume's Hist. of Great Britain. Though, in the baronet's patents, the peopling and cultivation of the province of Ulster in Ireland, and the contribution advanced by them, were inserted as the motive for instituting this new dignity. Selden's Titles of Honour, P. II. ch. v. King Charles I. afterwards created Scotch baronets, for peopling New Scotland in America. Chamberlayne, P. II. P. III. ch. iii. A baronet's eldest son inherits the title.

(87) Knights in England are of three classes, those of the Garter, of the Bath, and Knights Batchelors, as they are called. This honour is only personal, and the last is now

quires

quires (88); and, 4. gentlemen (89). Between the last and the commonalty, are the freeholders (90) and copyholders (91).

The rank both of the nobility and gentry in England, is punctually determined by acts of parliament, and decrees of the crown (92).

indiscriminately conferred on military men, lawyers, physicians, merchants, painters, &c. In former times the king, even when in the field, created Knights Bannerets, by waving a banner over them; but this dignity, which was formerly very respectable, is now become obsolete. See Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. iv. Selden, P. II. ch. v.

(88) In Latin, *Armigeri*; in French, *Ecuyers*; from which the English word *Esquire* is undoubtedly derived. This title is borne by the younger sons of earls, and all the sons of viscounts and barons; the eldest sons of baronets and knights; likewise all in any considerable post or employment; and all officers of the army and navy down to a captain inclusive.

(89) This is the distinction of all persons of creditable ancient families, bearing a coat of arms; of eminent men of letters; wholesale dealers; and all who follow no trade. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. iv.

(90) They are so called from their lands being their absolute property. They are also termed *Yeomen*, perhaps, from the German word *Gemeine*, i. e. *Commoners*.

(91) These may, in some measure, be said to have only the usufructuary property of their lands; which, however, they can dispose of by will; but, on every mortality, they pay a certain sum to the lord of the manor, of whom they hold their land. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. iv. Miede, P. I. ch. xviii.

(92) Their order is as follows; dukes, marquisses, dukes eldest sons, earls, marquisses eldest sons, dukes younger sons, viscounts, earls eldest sons, marquisses younger sons, barons, viscounts eldest sons, earls younger sons, barons eldest sons, knights of the Garter, who are not peers, viscounts younger sons, barons younger sons, baronets, knights of the Bath, knights batchelors, esquires, gentlemen. *Angl. Notitia*, cap. vi. Miede, P. I. ch. xviii.

In Scotland
and Ireland.

The degrees of nobility are the same in Scotland and Ireland as in England, except that in Ireland they have but one duke and no marquisses (93).

S E C T. XVII.

Form of
government
in England.

The Anglo-Saxons, in the government which they set up in Britain, united two things apparently opposite, sovereignty and liberty. The kings shared some important rights of the supreme power with the states of the kingdom (94), who, at certain times, held their meetings, and these were called Wittena-Gemot (*f*). William I. and William II. reigned very arbitrarily, indeed, I may say, despotically; but Henry I. relinquished the illegal privileges which his

(93) The English and Scotch peers take place of the Irish of the same rank; but concerning the precedence of the English and Scotch peers, it was provided by article XXIII. of the treaty of Union between the two kingdoms, that the peers of England then existing should precede the Scotch of equal title; but that these should have the precedence before British peers created after the Union. There is, besides, in Scotland, a kind of petty barons called Lairds. These are gentlemen who are possessed of lands held immediately of the crown. Their rank is next to the knights batchelors.

(94) But whether these states were only the great men, or whether the inferior members of the nation made a part of them, is a question very much debated in England; and which, in the want of records and testimony of historians, cannot be determined with any certainty. Rapin, Vol. II. p. 23.

(*f*) Dissertation on the Government, Laws, &c. of the Anglo-Saxons, in Rapin's History, Vol. II. p. 19.

two predecessors had assumed, and again placed the nation in possession of its former rights and immunities; which afterwards, particularly under John and Henry III. were augmented, enforced, and, in the following reigns, continually maintained, even among many intestine wars and commotions of the state. This is to be attributed to the firmness and vigilance of the states of the kingdom, in restraining the prerogative within the limits of the law. Their assembly is called the parliament (95), and consists of the nobility, the prelates, and the deputies of the counties, cities, and towns, or, more briefly, of the lords and commons (96): and, accordingly, the parliament is divided into the upper (97) and the lower house (98).

The prerogative in Scotland, as well as in ^{Of Scot-} England, was limited by the nobility; who, ^{land.} being very strong, frequently paid the king no more obedience than they thought fit, and often revolted against him. Their assemblies were, at first, called the King's Court, or

(95) This name was imported from France by Henry I. or, according to others, by Edward I. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. ii.

(96) These are thought to have been first called to parliament in the year 1264, under Henry III. others, again, affirm, that the commons were members of the parliament ever since such assemblies had a beginning. Rapin, Vol. III. p. 157.

(97) House of lords.

(98) House of commons.

the

the King's Great Council : but afterwards, the word Parliament was made use of, in imitation of the English. At first only the barons, or the nobility, had a seat in it; but in time, the deputies of the inferior barons, or lairds, and even of the towns, were admitted (g).

Union of
the king-
doms of
England and
Scotland.

The English having, for many ages past, aimed at subjecting the whole island of Britain to their dominion, attempted it in several manners : for making the kings of Scotland their vassals (99); and afterwards, they went about uniting it with England by marriages (100). Their view was, that an Englishman might be king of Scotland : whereas time brought about the very reverse, and a native of Scotland reigned over England in the person of James I. This prince united England and Scotland under his dominion, by the name of Great

(g) Robertson's Hist. of Scot. Vol. I. p. 65, 66.

(99) Some former kings of Scotland having acknowledged the kings of England for their feudal lords (Rymeri Aft. Publ. Tom. I. P. I.) Edward I. availed himself of that concession, for possessing himself of that assumed superiority : but his grandson, Edward III. voluntarily divested himself of it. Rymer. Tom. II. P. III.

(100) Edward I. was for marrying his son and heir with Margaret, grand-daughter to Alexander III. king of Scotland, and heiress to the crown : but her death broke off the design. So the match intended by Henry VIII. between his son and successor Edward VI. and Mary, queen of Scotland, was hindered by other circumstances.

Britain :

Britain; both kingdoms, however, retaining their separate constitution and legislature. He, indeed, had some thoughts of a closer union, and Charles II. and William III. had the like intention, but their endeavours never came to maturity (*b*). This honour was reserved for queen Anne; and in her reign, the earl of Godolphin successfully completed that important affair. Pursuant to this Union, England and Scotland are become one kingdom, under the name of Great Britain. Both nations obtained by this treaty the same rights and privileges; and the parliament, as composed of both nations, was termed the parliament of Great Britain (*i*).

S E C T. XVIII.

This august assembly consists of the upper and lower house. In the former sit all English temporal and spiritual peers (*2*),

Parliament
of Great
Britain.

(*b*) Campbell's British Admirals, Vol. II. p. 296.

(*i*) See the treaty of Union in Du Mont, Corps Diplom. Tom. VIII. P. I. and in Lamberti's Memoires, Tom. IV. p. 363. It was signed on the 22d of July, O. S. 1706, by the English and Scotch commissioners, and received the queen's assent on the 6th of May 1707, after being approved by the English parliament. If Scotland has, by this treaty, been rendered very dependent on England, it has, on the other hand, obtained many and substantial advantages. Campbell, Vol. II. p. 298, 299, 303.

(*2*) The lords spiritual are, the archbishops of Canterbury and York, and the twenty-four English bishops. Of tempo-

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

together with the sixteen Scots peers (3). The lower house is composed of the representatives of the counties, cities, and boroughs, in England (4) and Scotland (5).

The king convenes the parliament at what time and place he pleases (6). The English temporal and spiritual lords are called by a particular writ. The deputies of the counties, cities, and boroughs, are chosen by the substantial inhabitants, on receiving an order from the king

ral peers the number is uncertain, it being a branch of the king's prerogative to create as many as he pleases; but some, as minors, are incapable, and others, as catholics, are excluded by the laws, from sitting and voting in parliament. Mille's Nobilitas Polit. & Civil. p. 112. and Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xi.

(3) The parliament of Scotland being discontinued by the Union, sixteen Scotch peers, chosen by the nobility of that country, are, by virtue of article XXII. admitted into the parliament of Great Britain.

(4) The English members of the lower house are,

1. The representatives of the forty counties	80
2. Ditto of the cities and towns	389
3. Ditto of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge	4
4. The barons of the Cinque Ports	16
5. The twelve counties of Wales	12
6. The twelve cities and towns in Wales	12

513

(5) The Scotch members are, by virtue of the Union,

1. The representatives of the thirty-three counties	30
2. And of the cities and towns	15

45

Thus the lower house of the parliament of Great Britain consists altogether of 558 members.

(6) The parliament has, for this long time, met in the old palace at Westminster.

for

for that purpose (7). The like is observed in Scotland, where the privy-council, on the king's writ, issues orders for the elections of the peers and commons (8). On the day of the parliament's first meeting, the king comes to the house of lords, and the commons being sent for, he orders them, by the lord-chancellor (9), to choose a speaker, whom they are to present to him in a few days. This being done, the king makes a speech, in which he lays before the houses such things as he thinks seasonable and necessary; and this speech is, the day following, answered by a written address from each house. After these preli-

(7) Each county sends two representatives, who are called Knights of the Shire. Every city sends the like number, who are called Citizens; and most towns, or boroughs, have the like privilege: the members for these are called Burgesses. The opulent city of London, by a particular and very just privilege, sends four representatives. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xi. These elections are often attended with great irregularities and disorders, the spirit of party and corruption being very busy on those occasions. Le Blanc, Lettr. LXVIII. and LXXXIII. The representative of a county must be a knight, or at least an esquire, with 600 l. sterling a year in lands; whereas for any other representative 300 l. suffices.

(8) The sixteen peers are chosen by the peers of Scotland, and the thirty representatives of the counties by the lairds; and are generally of that class. Of the fifteen members of cities and towns, Edinburgh chooses one, the remaining fourteen are chosen by the other towns or boroughs, four or five jointly sending one member.

(9) This is sometimes done by the chancellor alone, in virtue of a commission from the king.

minaries,

minaries, the king goes to the parliament only when he has matters of great importance to lay before them, or to give his assent to such bills as are ready, or to close the session, or dissolve the parliament (10).

Immediately on the meeting of the parliament, and before any business can be entered on, the members of the lower house must take the oath of allegiance (11), the oath of supremacy (12), and the test (13), and likewise that of abjuration (14). The two last oaths are also taken by the peers. Every member of the upper and lower house has, equally with the king himself, a right of making a proposal in parliament, in order for its passing into an act. Such a proposal, when digested into

(10) All this, however, the king can do by commission.

(11) This oath was first instituted by the parliament in the year 1606, after the powder plot; it declares the independency of the king on the see of Rome, and the invalidity of the pope's excommunications. Rapin, Vol. VIII. p. 62.

(12) This oath was introduced in 1534 by Henry VIII. after he had shaken off his submission to the pope; and by virtue of it, the king was declared head of the church of England. Rapin, Vol. VI. p. 385, 386.

(13) This oath, which took place in 1674, is so called, being, as it were, a test or touch-stone for knowing the catholics, as in this oath a person swears, that he does not believe in transubstantiation, and rejects the worship of saints. The end of it was to exclude papists from public employments. Rapin, Vol. XI. p. 395, 398, 402, 409.

(14) This oath the parliament passed in the year 1702, at the close of the reign of William III. Tindal's Contin. of Rapin, Vol. XV.

writing,

writing, is called a bill. When it has gone through the deliberations of one house, and has been agreed to by a majority of votes, it is sent to the other house for their approbation (15); and if approved (16), is offered the king for the royal assent (17). After which the bill is called an act of parliament, and becomes a law. The subject of a bill is either private, or public and general. In the first case it is called a private bill, in the second, a public bill; and according to these differences the forms of the royal assent differ (18).

(15) A bill must be read three times. If not rejected at the first reading, it is, a few days after, read a second time, and then, if a bill of importance, is referred, for farther examination, to a committee of the whole house; but otherwise, to a private committee, composed of only eight members. On the report of the committee, the bill, after being put to the vote, is ordered to be ingrossed, and, within a day or two, read a third time; and then passed, or thrown out. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xi. p. 92, 93.

(16) This is not always the case; and if the two houses cannot agree about a bill, it is said to be lost. In which house, whether the upper or the lower, a bill had its beginning, is equally the same; but money bills always begin in the lower house; which has never allowed the lords to make any alterations in those bills, as sometimes is done in others. The reason for this is, that the greater part of the money raised for the public service comes from the commons.

(17) Yet it is in his pleasure either to give his assent or refuse it, though the latter is very seldom the case.

(18) When any number of bills are ready, the king generally goes in person to the house of peers. The clerk of the crown then reads the title of every bill, and, on his

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The speaker of the lower house, who is chosen from among the members, should be a person of great experience and abilities, particularly in parliamentary affairs. He is the mouth of the house, and without him no business can be transacted.

The lord-chancellor is always speaker, or president, of the upper house; where, besides him, the twelve judges of England occasionally assist, when consulted in points of law.

The peers have the privilege of voting by proxies, but these must be peers.

The members of the lower house determine every thing of themselves, and vote as they themselves please, without any obligation to consult their constituents.

During the sitting of the parliament, and forty days after, their persons cannot be arrested or confined, except for high treason, or other great crimes; nor can any judicial complaint be preferred against them. On

reading it, the clerk of the parliament (orders being previously signified to him by the king) declares the royal assent, which, by an old custom, is done in French. To a public bill he says, *Le Roy le veut*, "The king will have it so;" to a private bill, *Soit fait comme il est désiré*, "Be it as is desired;" to a money bill, *Le Roy remercie ses loyaux Sujets, accepte leur Benevolence, & aussi le veut*, "The king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts of their benevolence, and likewise will have it so." But if the king opposes the bill, the expression is, *Le Roy s'avisera*, "The king will advise on it;" which is looked on as an absolute, though softened, denial; and there is an end of the bill.

the

the other hand, they must bear their own charges; whereas formerly they had a daily allowance of six shillings and eight pence (i). As the lower house makes the majority in parliament, so likewise does its consideration preponderate (k).

S E C T. XIX.

The Britons may justly glory that they are subject to no laws but of their own making, and pay no taxes but what they themselves impose; for the parliament, which is the representative of the nation, has a right of making laws, and appointing the taxes payable by the public. To this are required the agreement of both houses, and the royal assent.

Rights of
parliament.

The parliament is the guardian of the constitution and laws, and the liberties of the people. In case of any violation of them, and any grievances proceeding from such violation, it brings the delinquents to a trial, punishing them according to their demerits. The upper house is the judge, and the lower house the plaintiff. The greatest

(i) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xi. Mieré, P. I. ch. xxxv.

(k) Le Blanc, Lettr. XXI.

peers, the king's ministers, all placemen of all ranks, are subject to its jurisdiction (1).

S E C T. XX.

Royal prerogative.

Thus is the king's prerogative limited, and the English have a saying, "That God and the Laws are his Superiors;" yet is he not without very many and great honours and privileges, which are included under the name of prerogative; and these he holds independently of the parliament. He has the sole disposal of all posts belonging to the crown and court. He nominates all commanders by sea and land. He is likewise the fountain of honour in spirituals and temporals. No sentence of death can be put in execution without his order; and he can pardon malefactors. He likewise is invested with all the rights of sovereignty. He has the power of making war (19) and peace; he sends and receives ambassadors, enters into treaties and leagues with foreign states (20).

(1) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. H. ch. xi. Miede, P. I. ch. xxxv.

(19) But as war cannot to be carried on without money, the king stands in need of the parliament's approbation, in order to be duly supplied.

(20) The parliament, however, sometimes addresses the king, that the treaties, and the negotiations relating to it, may

Thus

Thus the king's power is still very considerable ; and it may be said, that a good, just, and wise king, if the parliament and he agree, may do any thing ; and for obtaining and preserving this harmony he has various means (21). On any misunderstanding, or if the parliament is not well affected to him, he can prorogue (22), or dissolve it (23). This is a very important part of the prerogative ; and king Charles I. brought on his ruin by parting with it.

The laws allow the king many other great privileges ; they consider him as God's vicerent on earth, and, as such, attribute qualities to him, such as belong to no other man. He can do no wrong, nor commit an error (24) ; and so sacred is his per-

be laid before the house, for their examination, whether the honour and advantage of the nation have been duly consulted. This is chiefly done when the parliament is displeased with the ministry.

(21) The crown, having so many posts and dignities at its disposal, easily prevails on individuals, so as to secure a majority ; and thus the parliament is often very dependent on the court. *Hume's Essays Moral and Political. Le Blanc, Lettr. XIV.*

(22) If the parliament intermits its session but for a few days, it is called, " to adjourn ;" and this each of the two houses can do of itself.

(23) On the dissolution of the parliament, the members of the lower house cease to be members ; and writs must be issued out for a new election. The king can dissolve the parliament at pleasure, but cannot prolong its sessions beyond seven years.

(24) But these attributes do not belong to his ministers, the parliament frequently calling them to account.

son, that the mere thought or intention of killing him, is punished as high treason (*m*).

S E C T. XXI.

Advantages
and defects
of the Bri-
tish form of
government.

It appears from the premises, that the British form of government is mixed; and if it has a great share of monarchy, it is not without some portion of aristocracy and democracy. The English affirm that it is absolutely perfect, pregnant with all the freedom of a republic, connected with all the advantages of monarchy (*n*); and that the three orders of the state, on which the legislative power rests, are so well distinguished and tempered, that each of them, in consulting its own particular advantage, at the same time promotes the advantage of the whole nation (*o*). Allowing all this to be true, yet it seems no slender defect in the constitution, that the laws do not indicate, with proper perspicuity and explicitness, how far the rights of each of these three powers extend; for among the English themselves it is a saying, "There are three things in England without any known limits; the king's preroga-

(*m*) Wood's *Angliæ Notit.* cap. iii. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. ii.

(*n*) Le Blanc, *Lettr.* XIV.

(*o*) *Spectator*, No. CCLXXXVII.

tive;

tive; the liberties of the people; and the privileges of the parliament." This, of course, must sometimes make the government vague and unstable, and bring on confusion: for, how natural is it, and it has more than once been actually the case, that the king, the people, and the parliament, having no determined limits, should be for extending their respective prerogative, liberties, and privileges, to an improper length. The consequences of such attempts have been violent contests, and parties, which have divided the nation, and produced innumerable evils, intestine wars, and revolutions.

S E C T XXII.

The English constitution, after undergoing so many and such violent concussions in former times, seemed, under the house of Tudor, to be settled on a firm foundation; none of those monarchs having openly attempted any thing to its subversion. But James I. on his accession to the throne of England, was for stretching the prerogative beyond the limits in which he found it; looking on the privileges of the parliament and of the nation, as illegal invasions on majesty, or, at most, but as favours and

Parties in
England.

and grants of the former kings, resumable at pleasure. This maxim he not only put in practice as often as he could, but on all occasions publicly urged and insisted on it. His flatterers and dependents approved and cried up this doctrine, till then unknown in England; but the lower house opposed the king, and asserted liberty as a birth-right of the English. From these collisions sprung two parties, those of the court and the country (25), which have continued ever since (q). Charles I. governing very arbitrarily, in pursuance of his father's principles, and involving himself in those quarrels which proved so unfortunate to him, the above parties broke out with greater violence: they who sided with the king were distinguished by the name of Cavaliers, and the parliamentarians were called Round-heads (r). Under Charles II. they who opposed the court were termed Petitioners; and the sticklers for it, Abhorers: but these distinctions were soon altered to Whig and Tory (s). These two

(25) These names, however, were not used at that time.

(q) Rapin, Vol. VIII. p. 23. and Hume's History of Great Britain, Vol. I. p. 87, 89, 90.

(r) Clarendon's History of the Rebellion, Vol. I. B. IV.

(s) Rapin, Vol. XI. p. 563, 564. Hume's History of Great Britain, Vol. II. p. 317. De la Cize-Hist. du Whigisme & du Torisme, p. 23, 51.



par-

parties have subsisted to our times, and frequently to the no small disturbance of the British government (26). The Tories attributed an unlimited power to the king, and required of the subject a passive obedience; whereas the Whigs were zealous for liberty, and accounted an opposition to power setting itself above laws, to be not only justifiable, but highly praise-worthy (27). But both parties have very much altered their behaviour since the Revolution in 1688. The new regulations made after that event the Tories could not relish; and harbouring a strong attachment to the Stuart family, which had been excluded the throne (28), they never were sincerely well affected either to king William III.

(26) Concerning the parliament called by queen Anne, in the year 1710, in which the violence of the two parties rose to a great height, an English writer has these words, "The nation is crucified between the Tories and Whigs as between two robbers." *Of the Use and Abuse of Parliaments*, Vol. I. p. 164.

(27) More of the principles of both parties, in church and state, may be seen in *De La Cize*, p. 122. Among the Tories were most of the civil and military officers, the courtiers, the clergy of the church of England, and the catholics. The Whigs mostly consisted of presbyterians, and other protestant nonconformists. *De La Cize*, p. 51, 52.

(28) Those violent Tories who openly declared for the Stuart family, which had been dethroned, were called Jacobites; and they who refused to take the oath of allegiance to king William, were distinguished by the appellation of Non-jurors.

or to queen Anne (29), or to the present royal family. They have, on all occasions, opposed the measures of the court, and professed a zeal for liberty; and the Whigs, on their side, after the Revolution, which was chiefly their work, standing higher in the prince's favour, and enjoying all the new employments, which they themselves had created, and other advantages, which they could expect to hold only under the new reigning family, have always shewed themselves votaries to the court; and have complied with, and invented measures, which seemed to affect liberty. Thus have these parties acted diametrically contrary to their known original principles: on which account, the enemies of the ministry call the court party, the real Tories, and those in the opposition, the real Whigs (*t*). These names, however, seem to be growing out of date, being replaced by the plainer words Corruption and Opposition; the former comprehending the courtiers, and the latter, the anti-courtiers.

(29) Except in the last four years of her reign, when the Tories, being at the helm, were carrying on designs for placing the pretender on the throne at the queen's demise.

(*t*) See Hume's Essays Moral and Political, XI. p. 99, 100, &c.

In

In the mean time, the motives which have kept up the agitations of these parties so long, have not been so much the difference of principles of Whigs and Tories, as self-conceit and self-interest (30); and the natural hatred of ministers has not a little fomented these animosities.

In the last years of the reign of George II. an uncommon harmony prevailed thro' the whole nation, from the good opinion entertained of the ministry; but since his demise, discord, and the spirit of party, have broke out again, and now flame with all their former vehemence (31).

S E C T. XXIII.

A French writer takes upon him to prophesy, that the British form of government, draws near to its period; and that it will in no long time end in a democracy or unlimited monarchy (u). Another, rather of greater reputation, looks upon it as absolutely predestined to end in the latter (x).

Whether
the British
form of go-
vernment
can last.

(30) William III, used to say, "If a king of England had employments enough for all who were soliciting them, the names of Tories and Whigs would soon no more be heard of." De La Cize, p. 22.

(31) For the causes, see a Review of Lord Bute's Administration, p. 8, 9, 73, 74, &c.

(u) Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. XIV. p. 190, & suiv.

(x) Montesquieu's Spirit of Laws. Tom. I. B. XI. ch. vi. p. 324.

A ce-

A celebrated British writer observes, "That the stream, which, in Great-Britain had for a long time, and pretty strongly run for a democracy, now began to take a turn towards monarchy." And after deciding the question, whether it be better for the British form of government to end in a democracy or unlimited monarchy? he pronounces, "that an unlimited monarchy would be the easier death." Its catastrophe, however, be it either, or any, does not seem so very near. His present majesty's prudence and moderation, and the good understanding between him and the parliament (32), the maintenance of which, he makes the leading rule of his administration, still promise a very long existence to the present British form of government.

S E C T. XXIV.

Fundamental laws and privileges.

As the king of Great Britain has his prerogatives, so likewise do the subjects enjoy many and great immunities and privileges; and these secured by several laws. The principal, and which in England has

(32) This good understanding has, since the accession of the present royal family to the throne, been always so complete and unreserved, that the parliament has never refused subsidies in money or troops, or scarce any thing else which the court has desired. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xi.

always been considered as a fundamental law, is king John's Magna Charta (33), which has since been often confirmed (34), and contains an account of the privileges of the nobility and commons. But this charter, being, in succeeding times, frequently violated, or at least contested, has been explained, enforced, and likewise enlarged, by several acts of parliament, among which the Petition of Right (35), the Habeas Corpus bill (36), the Declaration of Rights, and

(33) Charta Communium Libertatum, or Magna Charta, the Great Charter, which this king, tho' by compulsion, gave to the barons in the year 1215, and afterwards revoked, having obtained the pope's absolution from the oath he had taken to observe it. Rapin's Hist. Vol. II. p. 504. and Du Mont, Corps Diplom. Tom. I. P. I.

(34) Henry III. had several times solemnly promised to his subjects that he would observe the Magna Charta; but kept his promises no longer than he could help it. Edward I. formally ratified it in 1297. (Rymer. Act. Publ. Tom. I. P. III. p. 189.) But this prince, likewise, in 1305, procured himself to be absolved from the obligation of his oath. Rymer. Tom. I. P. IV.

(35) This was an act of parliament in 1628, drawn up in the form of a petition, containing an enumeration of several grievances, and petitioning the king for the abolition of them. Rapin, Vol. VIII. p. 448.

(36) This act was made in 1679, for security of the personal liberty of the subject from arbitrary imprisonment; if it has been inflicted without sufficient cause, the party imprisoned must be immediately discharged; but if there be cause, he must be brought to a trial without delay. Hume's Hist. of Great Brit. Vol. II. p. 303. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. iv. p. 180.

the

the Succession bill (37), are particularly remarkable.

The other fundamental laws are the Act of Succession (38) and the treaty of Union betwixt England and Scotland (39).

S E C T. XXV.

Succession
to the
throne.

The succession to the throne of Great Britain is, by the customs and the laws of the kingdom, hereditary, both in the male and female line; the sons, and their issue, and in the want of such, the daughters and their issue, succeeding to the deceased king, according to the right of primogeniture; then the brothers, and after these, the sisters in like manner; and after them, the

(37) This act of parliament was made at the Revolution in 1689; besides the conditions on which king William III. was advanced to the throne, it likewise settles the succession. Tindal's Contin. of Rapin, Vol. XIII. p. 144.

(38) Or, according to its more extensive title, An Act for the further Limitation of the Succession of the Crown, and better securing the Rights and Liberties of the Subject. This act of parliament was made in the year 1701, at the earnest recommendation of William III. settling the succession on the Electoral house of Brunswic Luneburg, under certain provisos therein specified. The act is to be seen in Du Mont Corps Diplom. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 3. and in Lamberti's Memoirs, Tom. I. p. 499. This author, p. 121, mentions a particular circumstance, which incited king William to push the matter with so much ardour. The Tories came into it very unwillingly, and clogged it with all the impediments they could. See Tindal, Vol. XV. p. 91, 94.

(39) See above, § 17.

re-

remaining male and female relations. Thus, on the king's demise, the crown immediately devolves to the next heir, before he is either proclaimed, crowned, or acknowledged, by the parliament (z).

But in ancient times this succession did not always take place, being several times interrupted, as in the instances of king Stephen, John, and others. It then chiefly depended on the good will of the parliament (a); which, when the right of the claimants was doubtful, frequently settled it by an act: as with regard to the children of Henry VIII. (40); and, since the Revolution, it has made no difficulty of modelling or superseding the hereditary right, for the sake of the public welfare. King James II. having withdrawn out of the kingdom, occasioned the throne to be declared vacant, and William III. with his consort, were placed on it; and the said king James, having been led into most of his pernicious measures by his zeal for the Roman catholic religion, all papists were declared incapable of the crown. The succession was so set-

(z) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. iii.

(a) Rapin, Vol. VIII. p. 11, 12.

(40) The parliament in 1544, settled the manner of Henry VIII's children succeeding one another, and left to him to prescribe conditions to them; and, on his dying without issue, to appoint other successors. Rapin, Vol. VI. p. 526.

tled,

tled, that after king William and queen Mary, their descendants were to inherit; and afterwards, Princess Anne of Denmark, and her descendants; then the children which king William might have by a second wife (b). Thus the catholic descendants of James II. were excluded. But on the death of princess Anne's only son, William duke of Gloucester, a farther regulation of the succession in the protestant line becoming necessary, it was settled in 1701, on princess Sophia, electress dowager of Brunswick Luneburg, and her descendants, excluding the catholic branches of the house of Stuart; namely, those of Savoy and Orleans (41).

S E C T. XXVI.

The king's
majority.

The time of the king of England's majority was anciently undetermined; so that minor kings have entered on the administration of the government at different ages. Henry VIII. appointed by his will, that his son, Edward VI. should be under guardianship, till he had completed his eighteenth year (c). And this age has been settled by

(b) Tindal, Vol. XIII. p. 144.

(41) Anne, duchess of Savoy, formally protested against such exclusion. Lamberti, Tom. I. p. 503.

(c) Rymer, Aët. Publ. Tom. VI.

an act of parliament made so lately as the year 1751 (42).

S E C T. XXVII.

The regency and guardianship during a minority, is appointed by the prince on the throne, with consent of parliament (43). But if this be not provided for during his life, the parliament alone makes the necessary settlements (44).

Guardian-ship and re-gency in the time of a minority.

(42) The title of the act is, An Act to provide for the Administration of the Government, in Case the Crown should descend to any of the Children of his late Royal Highness Frederic, Prince of Wales, being under the Age of eighteen Years, and for the Care and Guardianship of their Persons, See Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. iii. p. 57. A New Genealogical and Historical Account, P. XVI. p. 300.

(43) As was done in the years 1751 and 1765, when the minor king's mother was appointed guardian and regent, with a council of regency.

(44) On the death of Edward III. the parliament appointed several persons to take care of the education of his grandson and successor, Richard II. and nominated the young king's three uncles by the father's side to be regents of the kingdom. Thus the guardianship, contrary to custom, was separated from the regency. Rapin, Vol. IV. p. 7. The king's appointing a regent, without consent of parliament, is invalid. When Henry V. on his death-bed named his brother, Humphrey duke of Gloucester, as regent of England, during the minority of his son Henry VI. the consent of parliament was thought necessary, before he could enter on his office. Rapin, Vol. IV. p. 296. If Henry VIII. in his will, appointed not only guardians and regents for his son, Edward VI. but likewise a privy council, yet was all this done by virtue of an act of parliament, which gave the king such a power. Rapin, Vol. VII. p. 2.

In

Regency
during the
king's ab-
sence,

In the king's absence, it was usual to appoint an administrator (45), or the queen was invested with the regency (46). Of late this trust has been committed to some of the principal state officers (47); but this depends purely on the king's pleasure.

and in other
cases.

If by reason of age, sickness, or imbecility, he is incapable of government, he or the parliament appoints a regent (48).

S E C T. XXVIII.

The king's
title.

The king's title was, at first, very short and plain; but, in process of time, several additions have been made to it. The kings of the Norman, and Plantagenet race, lengthened it with the names of their French territories (49). Henry II. on the reduction of Ireland, termed himself Lord of Ireland; and Edward III. claiming the crown of

(45) This high officer was called Lord Warden, or Lord Keeper, of the Realm. Such an administrator was appointed in the times of Edward I. II. III. and Henry V. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. iii.

(46) As under Henry VIII. William III. and George II.

(47) Those in England are stiled Lords Justices.

(48) Who is stiled Guardian or Protector. The last title was formerly most in use, and was likewise given to the regent, during a minority. The last who bore this title were, Edward Seymour, duke of Somerset, guardian to Edward VI. and the famous Oliver Cromwell.

(49) They termed themselves dukes of Normandy and Aquitaine. The former title ceased with Henry III. and the latter with Edward III.

France, assumed the title of King of France (50). Pope Leo X. honoured Henry VIII. with the denomination of Defender of the Faith (51); the king himself added that of Head of the Church (52), and instead of Lord, stiled himself King of Ireland (53): all these titles were afterwards

(50) He assumed this title in the year 1340, but laid it down again in 1360, at the peace of Bretigny; but the war being renewed between him and France in 1369, he, with the approbation of the parliament, reassumed the French title; and since that time, the kings of England have always retained it; only Henry V. after the treaty of Troyes, in 1420, instead of king, termed himself in writing, Heir and Regent of France. Another remarkable circumstance here is, that Edward III. frequently placed the French title before the English, which was likewise done by Henry V. before the compact of Troyes; and by Henry VI. in the first years of his reign. But the succeeding kings have always placed England first.

(51) As a reward of his zeal for the Romish church, in writing the following book, *De Assertionem septem Sacramentorum adversus Captivitatem Babylonicam Lutheri*. Vjd. Raynald. Continuat. Annal. Baronii, Tom. XX. 2d. Ann. 1521. n. 54. 73. 74. The pope's bull is to be found in Seldeni Tit. Honor. P. I. cap. v. p. 75. and in Rymer, Tom. VI. P. I. p. 199.

(52) After the English clergy had acknowledged him as such in 1531, and the parliament confirmed the title in 1534. Rapin, Vol. VI. p. 346, the other 347. 390.

(53) Henry VIII. agreeable to an act of the Irish parliament, which was confirmed by that of England in 1542, took on him the title of king of Ireland. Selden, P. I. cap. iv. Rapin, Tom. VI. p. 500. But the see of Rome considering it as an attack on the power it had assumed of making kings, and queen Mary, however zealous for the catholic religion, retaining the title, Paul IV. in support of his pretended right, thought fit, in the year 1555, to raise Ireland to a kingdom, of his own mere motion; that, as the historian says, Mary might rightfully, and with a safe con-

annexed to the crown for ever, by an act of parliament (54). James I. on his accession to the English crown, made a fresh addition to the king's title, as king of Scotland. For promoting an entire union between the two kingdoms (55), he assumed the title of king of Great Britain, and ordered it to be used in all public instruments (56); but his design failed (57); nor was that title generally used till the actual union of the two kingdoms in 1707; since which time, the form of the king's

science, bear that title, which Henry VIII. and Edward VI. had presumptuously usurped. Raynald, Tom. XXI. P. II. ad an. 1555 & 27.

(54) In consequence of this act of parliament of 1544 the title runs thus; King of England, France, and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, and, on earth, Supreme Head of the Church of England and Ireland. Rapin, Vol. VI. p. 527.

(55) He was no sooner seated in the throne of England, than he issued a proclamation, ordering that the two kingdoms should be looked on at present as united. Rymer, Tom. VII. p. 72.

(56) By a proclamation of the 26th of October 1604. Rymer, Vol. VII. p. 125.

(57) James I. and his successors, used this title in their letters to foreign potentates, and it was even the inscription on the coins; but not being acknowledged by the parliament, it was not used in any royal commissions, patents, or instruments, relating to the domestic government of the kingdom; and both James I. and Charles I. are always stiled king of England, Scotland, &c. as appears from numberless records in Rymer's Collection. After the civil wars, and the restoration of monarchy, Charles II. and William III. likewise, in their letters to foreign princes, sometimes stiled themselves king of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland. Lunig. Litter. Procer. Europ. P. II. n. 495. and P. III. n. 926.

title

title has been, King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, Defender of the Faith.

The English in speaking to the king call him, Sir; a word borrowed from the French Sire.

S E C T. XXIX.

The king's coat of arms, like his title, *Arms.* has been often changed (*d*), and at the accession of the present royal family was disposed as follows: In the first grand quarter, Mars, three lions, passant gardant in pale, Sol, the imperial ensigns in England (*58*); impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, which are Sol, a lion rampant, within a double tressure, flowered and counter-flowered with fleurs de lis, Mars: the second quarter is the royal arms of France; Jupiter, three fleurs de lis, Sol: the third, the ensign of Ireland; which is, Jupiter, an harp Sol, stringed Luna: the fourth grand quarter is his present majesty's own coat; Mars, two lions, passant gardant, Sol, for Brunswick; impaled with Luneburg, which is, Sol, semée of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter; having an-

(*d*) Chamberlayne, B. I. P. II. ch. ii. p. 54.

(*58*) It is observed that Richard I. first bore these arms, or, rather, that he was the first king of England who used a coat of arms. Rapin, Vol. I. p. 257. fol. ed.

cient Saxony, viz. Mars, an horse current Luna, grafted in base; and in a shield sur-tout, Mars, the diadem or crown of Charlemagne. The whole within a garter, as sovereign of that most noble order of knight-hood, inscribed with this motto, HONI SOIT QUI MAL Y PENSE; given by king Edward III. the founder of the said order (59).

The English used to carry in their flags and colours, both St. George's cross, which was red, and that of St. Andrew, which was white, till, by an order of James I. in 1606, the two crosses were intermixed (*f*), and this flag is called the Union flag.

S E C T. XXX.

Privileges
of the crown
of Great
Britain.
Its domi-
nion over
the British
sea.

The English attribute to their crown, which is sometimes termed an imperial crown (60), the dominion over the British sea; and by virtue of it, require that all ships of foreign nations salute their men of war, with lowering their ensign, or a par-

(59) Edward III. added this motto to his coat of arms when he intended to assert his claim to France. Rapin, Vol. III. p. 438. William III. instead of it, bore the motto of the house of Nassau: JE MAINTIENDRAY.

(*f*) Rymer, Tom. VII. P. II. p. 150.

(60) James I. says of himself, that the imperial crown of England is devolved to him by hereditary right, and that he has united the two kingdoms both of England and Scotland under one imperial crown. Rymer, Vol. VII. P. II. p. 72. This term has frequently been used in acts of parliament.

ticular fail. Lewis XIV. however, would by no means acknowledge such superiority (61); but the states of the United Netherlands allowed it in the treaties of 1654, 1662, and 1667; and at the peace concluded at London in 1674, agreed, that the fleets of the States should, within the British sea, strike fail to a single British man of war (62).

S E C T. XXXI.

On the demise of the king, his successor is immediately proclaimed in Westminster and London: the coronation in England, a very ancient ceremony, is performed with great solemnity in Westminster abbey; when, after the king has taken the coronation oath, the archbishop of Canterbury anoints the king, and puts the crown on

Coronation
of the king.

(61) Concerning what passed between him and Charles II. on this head in the year 1662, see *Lettres, Memoir. & Negotiat. du comte D'Estades*, Tom. I. p. 184, 185, 191, 192, 200, 203, 206.

(62) By article IV. of the treaty of peace in 1674, this honour is to be paid to the British men of war, *A promontorio Finis Terræ dictæ usque ad medium Punctum Terræ van Staten dictæ in Norwegia. i. e.* "From cape Finisterre in Spain, to the middle of the land of Staten in Norway. *Du Mont, Corps Diplom. Tom. VII. p. 254.* From these words, Mr. Burchet, secretary to the admiralty, has more exactly determined the limits of the British seas, in his *Compleat History of the most remarkable Actions at Sea*, B. I. ch. xii. p. 34, 35. *Seldeni Mare Clausum*, Lib. II. cap. xxxii.

his head (63). On this, the lords spiritual and temporal take the oath of fealty to his majesty (64), who then receives the sacrament (65). If the king has a consort, she is generally crowned with him (66).

S E C T. XXXII.

Title of the
king's eldest
son.

The king's children are called sons and daughters of Great Britain; the eldest son is, by birth, duke of Cornwall (67), and created prince of Wales (68). Since the

(63) The king is asked, whether he will maintain the laws and customs of the kingdom, the rights and liberties of the people, and the protestant religion as by law established: which having promised, he swears, with his hands on the Gospels, that he will observe and keep what he has promised. Tindal's Contin. of Rapin, p. 117.

(64) The archbishop of Canterbury takes the oath first, and then kisses the king on the left cheek; the other bishops afterwards do the like. Then the first or eldest of the dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons, take the oath to the king in the name of the respective classes; afterwards, all touch the crown, and kiss the king on the left cheek. Cere-
monial de la Grande Bretagne, chap. iii. § 7. In the Cere-
monial Diplom. de Mr. Roussel, Tom. II. p. 470.

(65) The other ceremonies at and after the coronation are to be found in the place abovementioned.

(66) This was done at the coronation of James II. William III. George II. and George III.

(67) See above, § 16. (39). and Rapin, Vol. III. p. 433.

(68) Edward I. having brought the Welch to submit to the English government, conferred it as a fief on his eldest son: it afterwards became a custom for the king's eldest son to be created prince of Wales by patent, and, at the same time, putting on his head a crown, and giving him a gold ring and a silver verge. Selden's Titles of Honour, P. II. chap. v. The last mentioned ceremonies are now laid aside.

union of the two kingdoms, he is likewise stiled duke of Rothfay, and steward of Scotland (g). The other sons the king generally creates dukes by titles appropriated to the royal family, as Cumberland, Gloucester, Lancaster, and assigns them an income. Their title makes them peers of the realm, and, like the prince of Wales, they are privy-counsellors by birth (b). The daughters, on their marriage, are portioned by the parliament.

S E C T. XXXIII.

The present royal family is descended in a direct male line from the magnanimous duke of Bavaria and Saxony, surnamed Henry the Lion, who, in 1168, married Matilda, daughter to Henry II. king of England; and of this marriage was born William, afterwards lord of uneburg (69), the founder of the united houses of Brunswick Luneburg. The right of the first king of this line, George I. was more immediately derived from his mother Sophia, grand-daughter to James

Lineage of
the royal
family.

(g) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. v. Miede, P. I. ch. xxiv.

(b) Ibid.

(69) And, what is remarkable, this prince was born at Winchester, in England.

I. (70), on whom the English parliament, in 1701, settled the succession (71); so that the present royal family is, on the female side, issued both from the Plantagenets and the Stuarts.

S E C T. XXXIV.

Capital.

The capital of Great Britain is London: some English writers maintain, that it is the largest, richest, finest, and most populous city in Europe, and even in the universe, exceeding Paris and Rome put together (i). The houses are reckoned at one hundred and fifty thousand, with near a million of inhabitants (72). Its greatest length is computed between eight and nine miles, its greatest breadth at three, and its largest circuit at above fifty English miles (73).

(70) Her mother was princess Elizabeth, daughter of the said king, and married to Frederick V. elector Palatine.

(71) See the reasons, § 25.

(i) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. x. Miede, P. I. ch. ix.

(72) See Miede, P. I. ch. ix. where this calculation was made from the yearly bills of mortality, which, some years ago, amounted to thirty-three thousand; and from which it is inferred, that London has as many inhabitants as Rome, Paris, and Amsterdam together; which, however, is questioned by others. See Susmilch's Display of the Divine Oeconomy, P. II. p. 470, 482, 484. Abbé Le Blanc, however, thinks London larger than Paris, by reason of its great profligacy and libertinism. Tom. I. Lettr. XXX.

(73) Miede, P. I. ch. xix. But others reckon its greatest length only at six, and the greatest breadth only at two English miles and a half.

But

But that it is a city of vast extent, may, in some measure, be concluded from the many churches, chapels, hospitals, alms-houses, market-places, &c. (74). It consists properly of three parts; 1. The city of London, particularly so called; 2. The borough of Southwark; and 3. The city and liberty of Westminster. The city of London is governed by the lord-mayor, the court of aldermen, and common-council, to whom the borough of Southwark is likewise subject in many cases (75). The jurisdiction of Westminster is lodged in the dean and chapter, who choose the principal magistrates and officers.

Among the most remarkable buildings in London, may be accounted the Tower, about an English mile in circumference. It is a kind of strong hold, or fort; in it are the mint, the record-office, and a very large armoury and magazine. It likewise serves as a prison for state delinquents; and

(74) In London are one hundred and fifteen parishes, and near three hundred chapels and meeting-houses of several sects; fourteen hospitals, one hundred alms-houses, twenty-six prisons, and forty-seven market-places. Miede, p. 99, 100.

(75) The government of London is an image of that of the kingdom. The lord-mayor represents the king, the aldermen, who are twenty-six in number, the upper house, and the common-council, the lower house. Miede, P. IV. p. 127. This is the constitution of most English cities.

has

has a secure place for keeping the crown jewels and regalia ; anciently the kings sometimes made it their residence (*k*).

The king's
residence
and seats.

Since Whitehall was burnt down, in the year 1697, the kings have usually lived in the palace called St. James's. The royal seats, or country palaces, are, Kenfington, Hampton-Court, Richmond, and Windsor (*l*).

S E C T. XXXIV.]

State and
crown offi-
cers.

The great officers of state are, 1. The lord high steward (76) ; 2. The lord high chancellor (77) ; 3. The lord high treasurer (78) ; 4. The lord president of the council (79) ; 5. The lord privy seal (80) ;

(*k*) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. x. Miede, P. I. ch. xix.

(*l*) Miede, P. I. ch. ix. p. 107.

(76) He was the first officer of the crown, and his power so great, that this office has not been filled up since the time of Henry IV. except at a coronation, or trial of a peer.

(77) The lord high chancellor is now the first officer of state. He has the keeping of the great seal, and sometimes when there is no chancellor, a keeper of the great seal, or lord keeper, is appointed, with the advantages and power of the lord chancellor ; only the keeper is made by barely delivering the great seal to him, and the chancellor has a patent.

(78) The king appoints him by delivering to him a white staff. But this office, since George I. has been executed by commissioners, the first of whom has almost the whole power of the lord high treasurer.

(79) He proposes matters at the council table ; and if the king is absent, makes a report to his majesty of the several transactions.

6. The

6. The lord great chamberlain (81); 7. The lord high constable (82); 8. The earl marshal (83); and 9. The lord high admiral (84).

All these great offices are confirmed by the king, only during his own good pleasure, and not during life, except those of lord great chamberlain and earl marshal; the former being hereditary in the house of the duke of Ancafter, and the latter in that of the duke of Norfolk (85).

The lord chancellor, the lord treasurer, the lord president of the council, and the lord privy seal, take place of all dukes, except those of the royal family.

(80) All charters, grants, pardons, &c. pass through his hands, and afterwards, go under the great seal, if the nature of the affair requires it; for in many cases the great seal is not necessary.

(81) He has some particular functions at the king's coronation and other solemnities. The palace of Westminster is under his inspection and government.

(82) This office was, by reason of its enormous power, suppressed under Henry VIII. The last was Edward Stafford, duke of Buckingham, beheaded in 1521. At a coronation a lord high constable is appointed for the day.

(83) He takes cognizance of all matters of war and arms, and, with the assistance of the kings at arms and heralds, marshals and regulates public solemnities, as the coronation and proclamation of the king, his marriage, and funeral. He is likewise judge of the pedigrees and arms of the nobility and gentry, which, accordingly, are settled in the earl marshal's court.

(84) This important office has, for many years, been executed by commission.

(85) Concerning all these offices, see Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. ix. and Miede, P. I. ch. xxv.

The

The lord great chamberlain, the earl marshal, and the lord high admiral, only precede those of their own class (86).

S E C T. XXXV.

Officers and
servants of
the court.

The officers and servants belonging to the court, amount to between six and seven hundred persons. The principal of these are, 1. The lord steward (87); 2. The lord chamberlain (88); 3. The master of the horse (89). To these some add, the master of the great wardrobe (90) and groom of the stole (91). Of the ecclesiastical officers at court, the principal are, the dean (92)

(86) Vid. Statutum Parliamentarium a 31 Henr. VIII. ap. Tho. Milles de Nobilit. Polit. p. 112, & seqq.

(87) Under Henry VIII. he was styled great master of the king's household; but under queen Mary, as at present, lord steward. He has the jurisdiction over the court, and within the verge, which is every way about two hundred yards from the last gate of the palace. At the opening of a parliament he attends the king's person to the house of peers, and administers the oaths to the members of the house of commons.

(88) Under him are the gentlemen of the privy chamber, who serve the king without any salary, in expectation of preferment. He has the appointment of the king's chaplains, physicians, surgeons, apothecaries, &c.

(89) This post was formerly much more considerable.

(90) See Miede, ch. xxxii.

(91) Ibid.

(92) This officer is commonly a bishop. He appoints all the other officers of the chapel, as the sub-dean, twelve priests, and twenty clerks of the chapel; besides whom, there are forty-eight king's chaplains. These are commonly doctors of divinity.

of the chapel and the lord almoner
(93) (94).

S E C T. XXXVI.

Great Britain has three orders of knight-
hood. The first and principal is that of the
Garter, instituted by Edward III. in the
year 1350 (95). It consists of twenty-five
knights (96) exclusive of the king, who is
always sovereign. The ensign of the order
is a figure of St. George (97), enamelled
in gold, and set with diamonds, and worn
pendant to a blue ribbon. The knights
likewise wear a narrow blue ribbon below
the left knee, with a gold buckle, and on
it the motto of the order, *HONI SOIT QUI
MAL Y PENSE*, in gold letters (98).

Orders of
knighthood:
I. Of the
Garter.

(93) This officer is likewise a bishop, and has his sub-
almoner. He distributes the king's charities; and every
Maunday Thursday washes the feet of a certain number of
poor men, who, on this occasion, also receive apparel, bread,
fish, wine, and money.

(94) Concerning all these spiritual and temporal officers,
see Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xii.

(95) For a brief account of the several opinions concern-
ing the origin of this order, see Rapin, Vol. III. p. 469.

(96) This number has constantly remained, without being
increased or lessened.

(97) As the patron saint of the order; and on his festival
the instalment of the new knights is performed in the chapel
consecrated to him at Windsor. The order itself was for-
merly called the order of St. George.

(98) For more particulars of this order, see Chamberlayne,
P. I. B. III. ch. iv. and Miede, P. I. ch. xvii. likewise Ce-
remonial de la Grande Bretagne, ch. v. Roussett's Ceremo-

The

II. Of the
Bath.

The second order is that of the Bath, instituted by Henry IV. (99); but growing since into disuse, George I. revived it in the year 1725, fixing the number of knights at thirty-seven, besides himself as sovereign. The ensigns of the order are, three crowns within a circle of gold, round which is the motto, *TRIA JUNCTA IN UNO*, hanging to a red ribbon crossing over the right shoulder to the left side (100).

III. Of St.
Andrew.

The third is the Scotch order of the Thistle, or St. Andrew. James V. king of Scotland, instituted it for himself and twelve knights, in imitation of Christ and his twelve apostles: but after the Reformation, it became obsolete. James II. king of Great Britain had some thoughts of restoring this order, but his deposition prevented it. Queen Anne, in 1703, revived the order, with a set of laws; and these were afterwards confirmed and increased by George I. The ensigns are the image of St. Andrew,

nial Diplom. Tom. II. The rules of the order, which were prescribed by Edward III. and explained and improved by Henry VIII. occur in Leibnitii Cod. J. G. Diplom. Mant. P. II.

(99) In order to heighten the lustre of his coronation, he created forty-six knights; who, from their bathing themselves the night before in the Tower, were called knights of the Bath. Selden's Titles of Honour, P. II. cap. v.

(100) For other particulars of this order, the reader is referred to Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. iv. Mège, P. I. ch. xviii. and Ceremonial de la Gr. Bret. ch. v. in Roussier's Cerem. Diplom. Tom. II. p. 593.

with

with a cross pearl on the breast, and this inscription, NEMO ME IMPUNE LACESSIT, which is worn hanging at a green ribbon, crossing from the left shoulder to the right side. The knights, who are twelve, besides the king as sovereign, must be Scotch noblemen or gentlemen (1).

S E C T. XXXVII.

Christianity was introduced all over South Britain during the Roman government; but the Saxons and Angles extirpated it (*m*). Pope Gregory the Great, about the end of the sixth century, sent some Benedictine monks, with abbot Austin at their head, in order to replant it. Instead of applying himself to the conversion, with which he was charged, he made it his chief business to bring the English church under subjection to the see of Rome (*n*). The popes afterwards embraced every opportunity of strengthening and enlarging their power in England, of which the Peter's pence is one instance among many (2). Innocent III. of

State of religion in Great Britain.

(1) See Miegé, P. II. ch. xii. and Cerem. de la Gr. Bret. ch. v. in Roussé's Cerem. Diplom. Tom. II.

(*m*) Rapin, Vol. I. p. 95.

(*n*) Ibid. p. 233, 234.

(2) Ina, king of the West-Saxons, having founded an English seminary at Rome, ordered a penny to be collected

all the Roman pontiffs the most ambitious, completed the business: taking advantage of the extremities to which king John was driven, he obliged him to become his vassal, and engage to pay him an annual tribute of a thousand marks sterling (3). From that time, the pope's looked on England as a conquered province, in which they might lord it at pleasure; and, accordingly, their demands and extortions were without bounds (4). But the excesses to which this power was carried, hastened its overthrow, and Edward I. and III. seconded by the parliament, gradually reduced it within some limits (5). Towards the end of the fourteenth century John

from each family for its support, and this contribution was first called Romescot, and afterwards, Peter's Pence. Offa, king of Mercia, imposed it likewise on his kingdom; and king Ethelwolf extended it over all England. The popes, in process of time, came to assert, that this free gift was a tribute, which the English were to pay to the see of Rome; and applied it to their own use. The first who abolished it was Henry VIII. Rapin, Vol. I. p. 188, 299.

(3) Reynald in Contin. Annal. Baronii, Tom. XIII. ad an. 1213. n. 78, would persuade his readers that the pope required no such odious and severe conditions, but that the king himself offered it of his own accord. But who will believe this, when the very instrument of the king's surrendering the kingdom to the pope, and the oath taken by him on that occasion, occur in Rymer, Tom. I. P. I. p. 57, 58.

(4) This needs no other proof than the many bulls and mandates from Rome, in the reign of Henry III. See Rymer, Tom. I. P. II. p. 16.

(5) Rapin, Vol. IV. p. 94, 95.

Wickliff

Wickliff preached against those exorbitances, and other abuses of the Romish church. He soon had a great number of followers, who, at last, absolutely separating from its communion, were nick-named Lollards (*p*). The pope and clergy, however, had still interest enough, under Richard II. and some of the succeeding kings, to procure very severe acts of parliament against this heretic (*q*). At the commencement of the Reformation in Germany, Henry VIII. himself manifested a great zeal for the see of Rome (*r*). But that court not gratifying him in the affair of his divorce, he withdrew both himself and the kingdom from under the pope's authority, at the same time strictly retaining the capital doctrines of the Roman church (*5*); which were not fully abolished till under his son Edward VI. Queen Mary restored popery in all its branches; but her sister Elizabeth, on succeeding her, revived the Reformation, and gave quite a new form to the constitution of the church; though the hierarchy

(*p*) Rapin, Vol. IV. p. 100, 105.

(*q*) Ibid. p. 142, 143.

(*r*) See § 28, (58).

(5) This is manifest from the bloody statute, as it was called, by which, all who opposed the six articles of faith established by the king and parliament in 1539, were to be hanged or burned. Rapin, Vol. VI. 461, 462.

continued the same, the archbishops and bishops retaining their dignities, with the superintendency of the churches still remaining. But this, great numbers of English protestants did not approve of; rather wishing that the constitution and form of worship had been regulated by the model of the church of Geneva. This occasioned the known division into the Church of England and Nonconformists, or Puritans. In the time of queen Elizabeth herself, several very rigorous laws passed against the latter; and under James I. and Charles I. they were oppressed, if not persecuted: but in the civil wars they gained the advantage; the consequence of which was, the total abolition of episcopacy. But, upon the restoration of Charles II. the church of England was likewise restored; and from that time till the Revolution in 1688, the presbyterians, as formerly, lay under very great hardships; till, at length, under William III. they obtained full liberty of conscience (6). There are, however, innumerable other sects in England, of which the most numerous are the Anabaptists, or,

(6) This was done in 1689 by the Act of Toleration. William III. intended them still greater indulgences; but the Tory party in the parliament thwarted his intentions. Tindal's Contin. of Rapin.

as they call themselves, the Baptists; the Independents (8); the Quakers (9); and the Methodists (10); and all tolerated, as are the Lutherans and catholics (11). Thus Episcopacy is the established church, and they who do not join with it, are included under the general name of Nonconformists, or Dissenters.

Since the Revolution, Presbyterianism has been the established church in Scotland (12); but in Ireland, Episcopacy prevails, as in England.

S E C T. XXXVIII.

England is divided into two ecclesiastical provinces, Canterbury and York, over each of which is an archbishop. Clergy of England.

(8) The rise of this sect is to be seen in Alberti, Letter LX.

(9) Their founder was George Fox, a Shoemaker. Mosheim, Instit. Hist. Eccles. p. 881. Voltaire, Melang. de Litterat. & de Philos. Ch. III. VI. Tom. II. p. 20, 28. Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. VI.

(10) Some remarkable accounts of these are to be found in Alberti, Letter IX.

(11) Tho' the latter be not included in the act of toleration, and the penalties against them remain in force, yet such is the mildness of the government towards them, that the acts are scarce ever put in execution against them, without some notorious offence, or in troublesome times. Alberti, Letter LXV.

(12) William III. found himself obliged, by the circumstances of the times, to abolish episcopacy in Scotland, where it had been established by Charles II. but this the zealots for high church never could forgive. Alberti. Letter LXI.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

The suffragans under the archbishop of Canterbury are, the bishops of, 1. London; 2. Winchester; 3. Ely; 4. Lincoln; 5. Litchfield and Coventry; 6. Hereford; 7. Worcester; 8. Bath and Wells; 9. Salisbury; 10. Exeter; 11. Chichester; 12. Norwich; 13. Gloucester; 14. Oxford; 15. Peterborough; 16. Bristol; 17. Rochester; 18. St. David's; 19. Landaff; 20. St. Asaph; 21. Bangor.

Under the archbishop of York are, the bishops of, 1. Durham; 2. Carlisle; 3. Chester; 4. Sodor and Man.

Both archbishops are stiled primates and metropolitans (13), and, together with the bishops, are lords spiritual, and in the house of lords sit on the right hand of the throne (14). The archbishop of Canterbury ranks next to the princes of the royal family, and precedes the chancellor; whereas York walks after the chancellor, taking place however of the other high officers of state, and other temporal peers. The bishops come next to the viscounts, and precede all barons. Among them the prin-

(13) The archbishop of Canterbury has, however, some privileges above York, and is termed *primas totius Angliæ*, the latter only *primas Angliæ*.

(14) But they are accused of leaning too much to the court, and being little better than mutes in parliament. Le Blanc, Lettr. XXI.

cipal are those of London, Durham, and Winchester; the others sit according to the time of their consecration. The archbishops and bishops constitute the upper clergy; the inferior are the deans and prebendaries, or canons (15), the archdeacons (16), and the parochial priests (17).

The king, on the calling of a parliament, likewise orders writs to be issued for convening the clergy, whose assembly is called the Convocation, and consists of the clergy of both ecclesiastical provinces, or only one. The former is called a national, the latter a provincial Convocation. The province of Canterbury holds its meeting in Henry the VIIth's chapel in Westminster abbey: and the province of York in the city of that name. The convocation, like the parliament, is divided into the upper and lower house (18); and the matters discussed there,

(15) These form the chapters of cathedrals.

(16) Next to these are arch-priests, commonly called Rural Deans; but at present this office is growing obsolete; these and the preceding are all termed Dignitaries, or the Dignified Clergy.

(17) These, according to the particular nature of their parishes, are called Rectors, Vicars, or Curates. Miegé, P. I. ch. xx. Besides these officers, the church of England has deacons. Farther, the archbishops and bishops, and all temporal peers, have a right to appoint domestic chaplains, but to whom their lords do not shew any great respect. Le Blanc, Letter IX.

(18) The upper house in the province of Canterbury consists of the archbishop, as president, and the twenty-one bi-

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

are only such as relate to the church and religion: but now it is above forty years since a convocation has met to do business.

Spiritual
courts.

Archbishops
courts.

Every bishop has, within his diocese a court of law (19); the deans and chapters, together with the archdeacons, are likewise possessed of some jurisdiction. From these courts, however, an appeal lies to the archbishop's court, of which the archbishop of Canterbury has four (20): any person judging himself aggrieved by their decrees is at liberty to appeal to the court of chancery, in which case the king appoints commissaries for deciding the affair (21).

Constitution
of the
church of
Scotland.

The church of Scotland is divided into provincial synods, each containing a certain number of presbyteries; and these again consist of several parishes. In Scotland are

shops, his suffragans. In the lower house sit all the deans and archdeacons, likewise a deputy or proctor for every chapter, and two for the remaining clergy of each diocese. The lower house, which consists of one hundred and sixty-six persons, chuse likewise a speaker, and present him for the president's approbation.

(19) This is called the Consistory Court.

(20) These are the Court of Arches, the Court of Audience, the Prerogative Court, the Court of Peculiars. See Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. viii. Miede, P. I. ch. xxxix. Alberti, Letter LXVIII.

(21) These are termed the Court of Delegates, and all transactions run in the king's name; whereas in the courts of the archbishops and bishops, it is in their own name and title. Concerning this and the whole ecclesiastical constitution of England, see more at large in Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. vii. viii. Miede, P. I. ch. xix. xx. xxxix.

thirteen

thirteen provincial synods, sixty-eight presbyteries, and nine hundred and thirty-eight parishes (s). In Ireland are four archbishops, Armagh, Dublin (22), Cashel, and Tuam; with eighteen bishops (t). And in Ireland.

S E C T. XXXIX.

Henry VIII. declaring himself head of the church of England, assumed all the power over it which before the popes had acquired; and by virtue of this prerogative, the king can consolidate bishoprics, and erect new sees. Without his particular permission (23), no bishop can be elected; nor when elected, is he, without his consent, to be consecrated, or put in possession of his see. These, and many other prerogatives annexed to the supremacy, Henry VIII. exercised by a superintendent (24): but queen Elizabeth, in lieu of such an officer, erected a particular high-commissioned court, which was abolished in

The king's
supremacy
over the
church of
England.

(s) Miede, P. II. ch. xv.

(22) The archbishop of Armagh styles himself, *primas totius Hiberniæ*; and the archbishop of Dublin, *primas Hiberniæ*.

(t) Miede, P. III. ch. xii.

(23) This is called *congé d'elire*, and in it is always mentioned the name of the person to be chosen. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. ii.

(24) He was called *Vicegerent*, or *Vicarius Generalis*. Rapin, Vol. VI. p. 426.

1641, under Charles I. (25). James II. established it again in 1686, but soon found himself obliged to supersede it (26); and ever since no thoughts have been entertained of setting it up a third time.

S E C T. XL.

Universities
in England.

Arts and sciences, which the Romans had introduced into Britain, were almost totally effaced and overwhelmed amidst the commotions of the Saxon conquest. Upon its conversion to christianity, however, they began to revive. Of this happiness, king Alfred the Great was a singular instrument: he is said to have founded the university of Oxford; and his son, Edward the Elder, that of Cambridge (27). These two uni-

(25) Rapin, Vol. VII. p. 194. So arbitrary and severe were the proceedings of this court against the nonconformists, that the parliament obliged Charles I. to suppress it. Hume's Hist. of Great Brit. Vol. I. p. 37, 213, 214, and 286.

(26) The circumstances which induced him to erect this court a second time, together with those which obliged him to supersede it, occur in Hume's Hist. of Great Brit. Vol. II. p. 287, and 400.

(27) King Alfred founded four colleges, or schools, at Oxford; the first for divinity, the second for grammar and rhetoric, the third for logic, arithmetic, and music, and the fourth for geometry and astronomy. Rapin, Vol. I. p. 331, 332. But whether Edward the Elder erected any seminaries at Cambridge is uncertain. Rapin, Vol. I. p. 392, and Tindal's Rem. e. Whoever were the founders, neither of these schools were universities in the modern sense of the word.

versities

versities may be termed Literary Republics, which consist of several smaller societies of students and professors (28), and have their own magistracy (29).

They both are possessed of very considerable privileges, among which may very justly be reckoned that of sending each two members to parliament; and for this mark of distinction they are obliged to James I. (30).

The students, on their admission, must subscribe the Thirty-nine Articles of the church of England, and take the test, by which both papists and presbyterians,

(28) These smaller societies are called colleges and halls; and the members of them live under one head, who in some is called Master, in others, Warden, President, Rector, Principal, and Provost; and their members dwell in particular buildings. The difference between colleges and halls in Cambridge, is purely nominal; whereas in Oxford, a hall is dependent on a college, and governed by its laws. Oxford has twenty colleges and five halls; Cambridge twelve colleges and four halls.

(29) These are the high steward, or commissary, as he is styled in Cambridge, the vice-chancellor, two proctors, and the orator. Besides these, its university has a recorder and register, several beadles, and other officers. The public teachers in the English universities are called Professors; some lecturers, and among them is likewise a professor of music. But the English themselves complain that the professors are something remiss in the discharge of their functions. Estimate of the Manners and Principles of the Times, P. I. § 5.

(30) For the constitution, discipline, and other particulars of the English universities, see Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. ix. Miede, P. I. ch. vii. and Alberti, Lettr. XLV. LIV.

and

and all dissenters, are excluded from the English universities (u). The course of study in them is very singular; and the acquisition of a doctorship is a work of years (31).

In Scotland.

In Scotland are four universities, St. Andrew's, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and Edinburgh (32).

In Ireland.

Ireland has only one, that of Dublin, which was founded by queen Elizabeth in the year 1591 (33).

S E C T. XLI.

Learned societies.

Besides the universities and other inferior seminaries, Great Britain has several learned societies, who make some particular branch of the sciences the chief object of their attention. The Royal Society of London (34) has eminently distinguished itself

(u) Alberti, Lettr. XLIX.

(31) A doctorship in philosophy requires seven years standing; in physic, eleven; of laws, twelve (in Cambridge only eleven); and in Divinity no less than eighteen. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. ix. Alberti, Letter L.

(32) Concerning these, see Chamberlayne, P. II. B. III. and in the List of Scotland, p. 7, 24. Alberti, Lettr. LXI.

(33) This consists only of Trinity college, and its constitution and discipline are taken from the English universities. Miede, P. III. ch. ix. Alberti, Lettr. LIV.

(34) This society began at Oxford, in Cromwell's time, but afterwards held its meetings at London. King Charles confirmed it in 1663, and gave it a regular constitution, by which it was to consist of a president, a secretary, a council,

in

in natural philosophy, and all the arts and sciences of any affinity with it; as astronomy, mechanics, civil, military, and naval architecture, which have been greatly improved: and not only England, but Scotland and Ireland, and the American colonies, have reaped the fruits of their useful discoveries in manufactures and handicrafts, in agriculture, and gardening, and many other occupations (x). It has, likewise, in several respects, been of essential service to the state. Its writings (35) have filled all Europe with its fame, and the academies and societies in other parts of Europe have been erected on its model.

The Society of Antiquarians at London chiefly employs itself about British antiquities (36).

Another society at London was that for the encouragement of learning (37); but this

and an indefinite number of members. The patent was the only benefaction from the crown; having supported itself purely by contributions of its members and other patrons of science.

(x) See Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. Le Blanc, Lettr. XLI.

(35) These have been published under the title of Transactions of the Royal Society. Concerning these, and some other circumstances of this society, see Alberti, Lettr. LXVII.

(36) This society, which had its beginning in 1717, has published many curious pieces. Alberti, Lettr. LXVII.

(37) This society was of great use to persons of genius, publishing such works as were approved of by the society, on advantageous terms to the authors. Alberti, Lettr. LXVII.

was of no long continuance; it saw its period in 1747.

S E C T. XLII.

Oratory and
poetry.

The very constitution of England is an incitement to eloquence. Very warm debates often arise in parliamentary deliberations: and these, as formerly at Athens and Rome, produce many and long speeches, in which important affairs of state are discussed. It is, however, observed, that these speeches are far from coming up to those of Demosthenes and Cicero on the like occasions (38); and that there is more logic than rhetoric in them (y). The same exception is also made to their sermons (z).

But if England affords no great orators, it has produced poets, who, for solidity of genius, elevation of sentiment, and energy

(38) This may be chiefly owing to these speeches being, for the most part, extemporary. There is a collection of all the speeches made since the restoration of Charles II. and taken down on the spot; the English being very expert in the art of couching speeches, or by means of certain signs, which is called Short Hand.

*Curant verba licet, manus est velocior illis,
Nondum lingua suum, dextra peregit opus.*

MARTIAL, Lib. XIV, Epigr. 208.

This art was likewise known so early as among the Romans; and those who practised it were called Notarii. See Martial, L. C. Aufon. Epigr. 146. & Lipsius, Cent. I. ad Belgas. Epist. XXVII. in Oper. ejus, Tom. II. p. 759.

(y) Le Blanc, Tom. II. Lettr. XXXIII.

(z) Ibid. Lettr. XLIII.

of expression, greatly surpass the modern poets of all nations; witness Shakespeare (*a*), Cowley, Milton, Waller (*b*), Butler (*c*), Dryden, Addison (*d*), Rowe, Prior, Pope, Thomson, Young; besides many others (39). The list of English poets is not without persons of distinction, as the dukes of Devonshire and Buckingham, the earls of Rochester, Roscommon, Dorset, Halifax, and lord Lansdown.

S E C T. XLIII.

History was formerly a field which the History. English so little cultivated, that it is still the honour of the French to have written the best histories of England. But of late, the British genius has taken a turn to this branch of literature, and applied itself more, not only to the history of its own country, but to that of all the nations of the universe,

(*a*) Voltaire, Tom. II. of his works, p. 97. Le Blanc, Lettr. XXXIX. and LXX.

(*b*) See Addison's Account of English Poets, in his works, Vol. I. p. 36, 39. Le Blanc, Tom. II. Lettr. XL. p. 145, 148.

(*c*) Voltaire, Tom. II. p. 115.

(*d*) Ibid. p. 101.

(39) Historial and Critical Accounts of the Lives and Writings of some English Poets, a German work; where, besides the above-mentioned, some remarkable particulars of several others are to be found.

of

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

of which, the Universal History is a signal instance (40).

S E C T. XLIV.

Philosophy.

Some single branches of philosophy, and particularly physics, have been greatly improved by English writers, as Bacon, Hobbes, Boyle, Locke, Hales, and others (e). Yet the universities do not bear any distinguished character for philosophy (41).

S E C T. XLV.

Divinity.

Divinity is in no better condition. The reading of the ancient Greek and Roman authors, which is the student's employment in his first years, raises in him such a love and esteem for those writers, that many divines are better acquainted with them than with the Bible, and thus often fail in their explanations of the sacred writings.

(40) The above extensive work, which is divided into ancient and modern history, and translated into French, Dutch, and German, was begun about thirty years ago, by a society of literati, and is now finished. This performance is very unequal, and some parts of the modern history are extremely bad; which may be partly imputed to the authors not having consulted the most recent historians of the several states and nations, as they certainly ought to have done. The history of Germany could not have fallen into worse hands.

(e) Le Blanc, Tom. I. Lettr. VIII.

(41) Modern philosophy has met with but few votaries in the English universities, that of Aristotle being read by their statutes. Alberti, Lettr. XLIX.

It

It must, however, be said in praise of the English divines, that none have surpassed them in their excellent vindications of christianity against freethinkers and deists.

S E C T. XLVI.

Law is indeed taught in the universities ^{Law.} of England (42); but the knowledge acquired there is by no means sufficient to make a fortune. The place for this is London, where are several colleges of lawyers, in which the students have apartments, and must apply themselves for some years to that study, before they can practise their business (43), which is indeed very lucrative. Not less than forty thousand persons live by

(42) The use of the civil law not being general in England, the English lawyers have chiefly employed themselves about the national laws. Littleton, Coke, and Selden, are the most celebrated authors.

(43) For the common law there are fourteen such colleges, called Inns of Court, or Colleges of Common Lawyers. The students of practical jurisprudence pass through several degrees; among which the highest is the serjeant at law (*serviens ad legem*), and is accounted equal to that of a doctor of the civil law. The king confers this dignity with certain formalities; and from these serjeants at law are chosen all the judges of the higher courts. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. x. Miegé, P. I. ch. ix. Alberti, Lettr. LXXVIII. As the civil law takes place in the court of admiralty and the spiritual courts, it has likewise a college distinguished by the name of the College of Civilians, or Doctors Commons. Chamberlayne, B. I. ch. x. Miegé, P. I. ch. ix. Abbé Le Blanc, Lettr. XXXVII. entertains but a bad opinion of all these colleges, and even gives them the appellation of *Seminaires de la Chicane*, Nurseries of Chicanery.

the

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

the law (44); which farther leads to the temporal honours of the kingdom (45).

S E C T. XLVII.

Phyfc.

Physicians have likewise a college, or society, with many and very considerable privileges (46). It has the inspection over apothecaries, and all others practising phyfic; which is not to be done in the city, and seven miles round it, without their licence, not excepting even those who have taken a doctor's degree at Oxford or Cambridge. A society of physicians has likewise been erected at Edinburgh, but its principal object is to improve the science by memoirs and writings.

S E C T. XLVIII.

Mathema-
tics.

Mathematics is the favourite science of the English, and their natural ingenuity and

(44) Some make the number still more. Le Blanc, Lettr. XXXVII. Many get some hundred pounds a year, and some even thousands. They are, indeed, accounted the richest class of the nation. Miede, P. I. ch. ix.

(45) That is, of chancellor, or keeper of the great seal, which now is soon followed by a peerage.

(46) It consists of fellows, honorary fellows, and licentiates, i. e. such who, after examination, have obtained a licence to practise phyfic. The college has a president, who is chosen annually. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. ix. Miede, P. I. ch. ix. Alberti, Lettr. VII.

pen-

penfiveness gives them a fuperior aptitude for fuch ftudies. At the head of the Englifh mathematicians ftands Newton, an univerfal genius, and whole name and merit are honoured throughout all Europe (47).

In the fine arts, particularly painting and fculpture, the Englifh continue ftill inferior to their neighbours the French; though thefe indifputably go too far, in denying them to have any tafte or fkill either in thefe arts or in engraving (48). They likewife find great fault with the Englifh architecture; and all the French writer undermentioned will allow the

Painting,
fculpture,
engraving.

Architec-
ture.

(47) Befides the very extraordinary honours paid to this great man at his funeral, a ftately monument has been erected to him in Weftminfter abbey, with a very encomiaftic epitaph. Pope, the celebrated poet, had drawn up the following, not lefs worthy of this eminent perfon, but it was not made ufe of.

ISAACUS NEWTONIUS,
Quem Immortalem
Teftantur Tempus, Natura, cœlum:
Mortalem
Hoc marmor fateur.

Nature and Nature's laws lay hid in night,
God faid, " Let Newton be !" and all was light.

The fame poet, on another occafion, honoured the immortal mathematician with the following encomium.

Superior beings, when of late they faw
A mortal man unfold all Nature's law,
Admir'd fuch wifdom in an earthly fhape,
And fhew'd a Newton as we fhew an ape.

(48) Abbé Le Blanc, Lettr. XXIII.

English is, their imitation of the Italians (49).

Printing.

How far printing has been improved in England and Scotland, may be seen by the very elegant editions of the classics and other writers, printed at London, Edinburgh, and Glasgow.

S E C T. XLIX.

Laws.

T. The common law.

The most ancient collection of English laws was made by Edward the Confessor. It contained those of the West Saxons, Mercians, and Danes, and was called the Common Law (*f*). William the Conqueror caused them to be translated into the Norman language; and he and his successors added to them the customs of the Normans (*g*). These have ever since retained the name of the common law (*h*), and been constantly used in the courts (50).

(49) Inigo Jones is the only one to whom he does any justice. Lettr. XXXVI. Mr. Hume, in his Hist. of Great Brit. Vol. II. p. 123, calls him an "architect who never was surpassed in any age or nation."

(*f*) Rapin, Vol. II. p. 48. Buder, Biblioth. Jur. Sel. cap. vi. § 5.

(*g*) Ibid. p. 116, and Tindal's Rem. (4).

(*h*) Buder. L. C. p. 98.

(50) The most complete collection of the old English laws was published by Wilkins in 1721, with this title, *Leges Anglo-Saxonicae Ecclesiasticae & Civiles*. Mr. Selden first communicated to the public a treatise on the antient English law, intitled *Fleta seu Commentarius Juris Anglicani* sub Ed-

Next

Next to these are the laws made by the king and parliament, which are contained in the acts of parliament, and called Statute Law (51). By these the common law is enlarged, amended, or altered (i).

II. Acts of parliament.

In some cities the magistrates have, by charter, a right of making new laws for the greater good of the inhabitants; and these are called peculiar and bye-laws (k).

III. Municipal laws.

The forest and martial laws (52) are a distinct set, for punishing crimes committed in the king's forest, and by soldiers and seamen (l).

IV. Forest, and V. Martial laws.

The Roman law obtains in the court of admiralty, the marshal's court, and the spiritual courts (m). In the last is also used the canon law, where it does not clash with scripture, the prerogative, and the laws of the kingdom (n).

VI. The Roman, and VII. The canon law.

wardo I. ab Anonymo Scriptus. This work is likewise mentioned in Hoffmanni Hist. Jur. Vol. I. Part. poster. p. 89, 184. Buder. L. C. p. 97.

(51) The English acts of parliament have been published by the title of, The Statutes at large, from Magna Charta to the reign of king George II.

(i) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. vi.

(k) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. vi.

(52) Martial law, however, takes place only in war time, and has been curtailed, and more precisely determined by late acts of parliament. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. vi.

(l) Ibid.

(m) Duck de Usu & Authorit. Jur. Civil. Lib. II. cap. viii. P. III.

(n) Ibid. § 26.

Scotland has its own laws and customs (53), and since the union, the acts of the British parliament are likewise in force there.

Ireland received the English laws under Henry II. (o).

Defect of
the English
laws.

It has been observed, not without reason, as a defect in the English laws, that in some cases they are too severe (54), and in others too mild (55); and that they do not sufficiently provide for the safety and property of the inhabitants (56). There is a palpable abuse in the application of the laws, the literal meaning being only considered; so that a crime which is not explicitly forbidden, is looked upon as not punishable (57).

The capital offences are either high and petty treason (58); or those included by

(53) The old Scotch laws and customs were published at Edinburgh in 1609, with this title, *Regia Majestas Scotiae*.

(o) Duck, cap. ix. § 7.

(54) As against poor debtors. Muralt, Lettr. V.

(55) Against false witnesses.

(56) Robbers, thieves, and cheats keep their spoil. Muralt, Lettr. V. Le Blanc, Lettr. XXXVII.

(57) See Muralt's remark on this, Lettr. V.

(58) The former implies dangerous designs, plots, and insurrections against the king's person and the state. The latter, if a son or daughter murder a father, a wife her husband, a servant his master and mistress, an ecclesiastic his diocesan. Miede, P. I. ch. 40.

the

the English under the general name of Felony (59).

The torture is not used in England, unless a malefactor obstinately refuses to answer (60).

S E C T. L.

The king is, by the laws, stiled the ^{Courts of law.} Chief Justice of England, and the fountain of all equity (p). He appoints the judges, and the most considerable courts are held in his name (61).

For the counties, cities, and towns, he ^{Justices of peace.} appoints an indefinite number of justices of peace (62), who are all persons of substance and character, and esquires by their office, which is to maintain order and the public peace, to decide small disputes, and to commit malefactors to prison.

(59) Among these are theft, robbery, murder, &c. A malefactor convicted of felony for the first time, murder excepted, is intitled to the Benefit of the Clergy; so that, instead of being put to death, they are only burned in the hand. Rapin, Vol. VII. p. 26, and Tindal's Rem.

(60) This particular kind of torture the laws term, Peine forte & dure. See Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. viii. p. 196.

(p) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. ii. p. 48.

(61) Excepting the spiritual courts. The cities and towns have likewise their own jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases, except when capital. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. vii. and xiii.

(62) Some person of eminence among the justices of peace, the king appoints Custos Rotulorum, i. e. keeper of the records, the judicial acts being in his custody.

Quarter sessions.

Every three months the justices of peace of each county meet alternately, and summon the grand inquest or county jury (63). These meetings are called Quarter Sessions. They examine into transgressions of all kinds; and, if the evidence be found plain, they send malefactors to prison, in order for their trial at the assizes; or try petty delinquents who had been before imprisoned by a justice of peace (q).

King's courts.

From these county courts, causes may be brought before the upper courts, of which there are three; the king's bench (64), the court of common pleas (65), and court of exchequer (66). Each of these courts has four judges, who are called the twelve judges of England (67). These, upon the meeting of the parliament, sit in the house

(63) The grand inquest or jury of the county.

(q) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xiii. Miede. P. I. ch. xxxvii.

(64) Here are tried all criminal and other causes in which the crown is a party.

(65) For determining processes between private persons.

(66) This court takes cognizance of matters relating to the revenue, taxes, and other dues.

(67) The first of the four judges in these high courts has certain privileges; the lord chief justice of the king's bench is stiled Lord Chief Justice of England; the chief justice of the second court is Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas; and the chief justice in the Exchequer is called Lord Chief Baron. The other three in this last court are termed Barons of the Exchequer. All these three courts hold their sittings at Westminster, and four times a year, which are called Terms. The first term is Easter, the second Trinity, the third Michaelmas, the fourth Hilary, each lasting a set number of days.

of peers, when called to give their advice in point of law (68). These twelve judges twice a year (69), visit all the counties of the kingdom (70), holding a court at the principal town, a court called Assizes. Here are determined matters which were left undecided at the quarter sessions, and other civil and criminal processes (71).

Any one conceiving himself injured by the decree of the other courts, may seek redress in chancery (72), which properly consists of two courts; in one, causes are tried according to the laws, and in the other, according to equity and conscience (73): the latter is appointed to protect the subject from fraud and oppression; and, in certain cases, to mitigate the

Court of
Chancery

(68) For other particulars relating to these courts, see Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xiii. and Miede, P. I. ch. xxxvi.

(69) After Hilary and Trinity term.

(70) England is divided into six circuits, in each of which the assizes are held by two judges. The principality of Wales also consists of two circuits, in each of which two judges hold the assizes at different places. Chamberlayne, L. C. p. 125.

(71) Concerning the proceedings in these courts, which is very different from that of foreign countries, see Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. vi. and Miede, P. I. ch. xxxvii.

(72) This court is held by the lord chancellor and twelve assessors, or masters in chancery, the first of whom is a person of great consideration, and styled Master of the Rolls (Sacrorum Scriniarum Magister & Rotulorum Custos).

(73) It is on this account that the chancery is called the Court of Equity, and the lord chancellor, Keeper of the King's Conscience.

severity of the laws. But the remedy has been observed to be as bad as the disease; the appellants meeting with extreme delays before their cause can be brought to a decision (74).

Among the upper courts are likewise the high court of admiralty (75) and the earl marshal's court (76). Lastly, the house of lords is the supreme court of judicature, to which appeals lie from all the other courts of the kingdom.

S E C T. LI.

Land forces.

A standing army was formerly something very extraordinary in England. In the civil wars between Charles I. and the parliament, the army raised by the latter was very near seizing on the government, and bringing the kingdom under its yoke. This attempt carried such an odium against that standing army, as it was called, that king Charles II, after his restoration, found himself obliged, at the peremptory requisition of the parlia-

(74) Concerning this court, see Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. ix. and Miede, P. I. ch. xxxvi.

(75) In this court, causes, when not criminal, are tried by the Roman law. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xiv. and B. III. ch. x.

(76) This court was anciently much more considerable than at present, it having now little more business than matters of genealogy and coats of arms. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. ix. Miede, P. I. ch. xxxviii.

ment,

ment, to disband it. But, at the same time, he raised a body guard, consisting of two regiments, one of horse, and the other of foot (r): and when in the second Dutch war, he again raised a body of troops, the parliament not only complained of this new army, but likewise spoke very strongly against the two regiments of guards; and for this reason, among others, "That such troops were only used in despotic states (s). These grievances were often renewed in the same reign. James II. in order to execute his design of subverting the liberties of England and the protestant religion, got together a considerable military force; but which, before his flight to France, he disbanded. King William III. however, kept those troops together, as necessary at that juncture, and the near approach of a war with France. The parliament, after the peace of Ryswic, insisted so vehemently on the reduction of the army, that only seven thousand men were kept on foot in England, and no more than twelve thousand in Ireland (77) (t). The conquests made in the war for the

(r) Rapin, Vol. XI. p. 199.

(s) Ibid. p. 403, 412.

(77) Since that time between ten and twelve thousand men have been constantly kept on foot in Ireland, and on the pay of that kingdom.

(t) Tindal's Contin. of Rapin, Vol. XIV. p. 466, 467, 470.

Spanish succession rendering a greater land force necessary, the number of troops for Great Britain was, in the year 1717, fixed at 16,347 men (*u*); and in the following year it was increased to 18,857 men (*x*). This moderate force was accounted sufficient for the security of the British government in times of peace. But in case of a war, not only the standing regiments are augmented and new ones raised (78), but sometimes whole armies of foreign troops taken into pay.

The body guard raised by Charles II. which at first occasioned such discontent and jealousies, has since been kept on foot, and even greatly augmented, so that at present it consists of:

1. Two troops of horse guards.
2. Two troops of horse grenadier guards.
3. One royal regiment of horse guards blue.
4. Three regiments of dragoon guards (79).
- And
5. Three regiments of foot guards (80).

(*u*) Tindal's Contin. of Rapin, Vol. XIX. p. 176.

(*x*) Ibid. Vol. XXI. p. 444.

(78) The British forces in the last war, including the Irish regiments, exceeded 100,000 men.

(79) The first of these is called the king's, the second, the queen's regiment.

(80) The first is called the regiment of Foot Guards, the second, the Coldstream, and the third, the Scotch Guards.

These

These troops are called Troops of the Household; the horse make 2098 men, the foot 5285; and thus the whole amounts to 7383 (81). These are included in the abovementioned account of land forces kept in British pay.

Besides these troops of the household, the king himself maintains and pays two companies, who immediately attend on his person: the first are called Gentlemen Pensioners (82), and the second, Yeomen of the Guards (83).

For the defence of the kingdom against any invasion or insurrection, England had formerly a horse and foot militia (84), which together made near 200,000 men. But their discipline being very defective, and little stress to be laid on them, in the year 1757, a new militia was formed, which makes a body of between thirty and forty

(81) Concerning these troops, see Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xii. and in the Appendix, No. LXXVII.

(82) These consist of forty men, mostly of good birth, besides a captain, lieutenant, and standard-bearer. Ibid. and in the Appendix, No. XXXV.

(83) These make a body of one hundred men, besides a captain and other officers. They owed their beginning to Henry VII. Bacon's Hist. of Henry VII. p. 22. and Rapin, Vol. V. p. 213, and Tindal's Rem.

(84) These the English call the standing militia or trained-bands. The king appoints for every county a lord lieutenant, who is generally a peer, and on occasion raises the militia. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xiv.

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thou-

thousand men, and on such a footing as to be always ready for actual service.

Old and disabled soldiers are very comfortably provided for in Chelsea hospital, which was begun by Charles II. continued by James II. and finished by William III. (85).

The great magazine or armoury is kept in the Tower of London, and besides a great quantity of cannon and other military stores, contains arms for at least 60,000 men, all kept in admirable order. The other magazines are at Portsmouth, Plymouth, Woolwich, Hull, and Berwick (86).

S E C T. LII.

Fortresses.

The inhabitants of this island boast that it is like a large and well garrisoned fortification, defended by very broad and deep ditches, the sea; and by excellent outworks, the ships of war (87); and that, with such a situation, it stands in no need of inland

(85) In it are maintained four hundred and eighty-six invalids, besides those called out pensioners, who, not living in the college, receive a yearly allowance. Chamberlayne, P. I. ch. x.

(86) All armouries and magazines are under the inspection of the master-general of the ordnance. Miede, P. I. ch. xxxi.

(87) Chamberlayne, P. II. ch. ii.

for-

fortifications. The former wars with Scotland, and the late rebellions of the Highlanders, have, however, caused some fortresses to be built in the north of England and the Highlands of Scotland, besides new roads for opening a ready communication between both countries (88).

The English have in all ages signalized ^{Navy.} their naval abilities, yet were long without any established or well regulated marine. For, on the fitting out of a fleet, ships were hired wherever they could be got: and it is observed, that the first ship built for the king's service was by Henry VII. who, on this occasion, made his son Henry VIII. an admiral, and settled a pay on the officers and foremast men. This was, properly, the commencement of the English navy. Queen Elizabeth, in the long and severe war between her and Philip II. king of Spain, was under a necessity of maintaining a larger fleet than any of her predecessors. And as in her reign the English commerce became extended to the Levant and the East-Indies, and the first American colonies were founded, these circumstances contributed greatly to the increase of the English naval force; which has from time to

(88) For a description of these roads, see Letters concerning Scotland, Vol. II. p. 206.

time been so far augmented, that at present it is by much the largest in Europe (89).

By this formidable navy, Great Britain is able to annoy its enemy in all the four parts of the world; while, at the same time, it is a strong barrier against any foreign attacks; so that the flight of one of their poets is not merely chimerical (90).

The fleet of Great Britain is divided into three squadrons, distinguished by the

(89) That the reader may have a plainer view of the increase of the English navy since queen Elizabeth, I shall here add an account of the number of men of war under each of the succeeding reigns.

The English fleet at the decease of queen Elizabeth consisted of 42 ships and 8526 men.

James I. increased it with nine, and Charles I. with ten middling and small ships.

Under Charles II. 1660, 65 ships; 1678, 83 ships, 18323 men.

Under James II. 1688, 173 ships, 42003 men 6930 cannon.

Under William III. 1702, 225 ships, 53921 men, 10678 cannon.

Under Anne, 1714, 232 ships, 49860 men, 9954 cannon.

Under George I. 1727, 235 ships, 64514 men, 10082 cannon.

In every account of the ships are likewise included the sloops, fire-ships, bomb-ketches, yachts, and other vessels belonging to the crown. See Campbell, Vol. I. p. 277, 344, 408, 518, 519, 606, and Vol. II. p. 192, 512, 574.

Under George II. in 1749, the fleet consisted of 344 ships, great and small, 90000 men, and 13000 guns. And

Under George III. in 1762, the number of ships was reckoned at 374, the complement of men near 100,000, with about 14000 guns.

(90) But we most happy, who can fear no force
But winged troops, or Pegasean horse.

WALLER'S Works, p. 8.

colour

colour of their ensigns, red, white, and blue; and each squadron has its own admiral, vice-admiral, and rear-admiral; but at present there are more than one of each rank. The red is the first; and accordingly the promotion of admirals is from the blue to the white, and from this to the red. The admiral of the red is stiled admiral of the fleet, and commander in chief of the navy. The other admirals receive their title from the flag of their squadron (91).

The fleet, and all sea-affairs, were formerly conducted by the high-admiral, who was one of the great officers of the crown; and his post was very considerable. But for several years past, it has been in the hands of seven commissioners (92), among whom are always some admirals (93). Sometimes two of the oldest and principal admirals are stiled Vice-Admiral and Rear-Admiral of Great Britain (94).

(91) Admiral of the White, of the Blue: Vice-Admiral of the Red, of the White, of the Blue. See Miege, P. I. ch. xxxi. p. 225.

(92) Their title is Lords Commissioners for executing the Office of Lord High-Admiral of Great Britain and Ireland. Under them, at present, is the court of admiralty and the navy office.

(93) Prince George of Denmark, queen Anne's husband, and the earl of Pembroke, who succeeded him in that high office, were the two last high-admirals of Great Britain. Campbell, Vol. II. p. 353, 371.

(94) See Miege, P. I. ch. xxxi.

Eight or ten thousand seamen were formerly maintained for ordinary service; but since the great acquisitions in America, it has been judged proper to raise the number to between fifteen and sixteen thousand: these in time of war, are increased to forty and fifty thousand; and towards the end of the last war, the parliament granted seventy thousand men. A great part of these are usually pressed, i. e. taken by force from other ships, to serve on board the fleet (95). But in the last war, a large entrance-money, or bounty, was given to seamen voluntarily entering into the king's service; and this had a very good effect (96).

The English seamen receive not only a larger pay than in other countries, but the worn-out or disabled are plentifully provided for in Greenwich hospital (97), which makes the appearance of a palace.

(95) The laws of England do not allow of pressing for soldiers, but for seamen the crown has such a power. See Hume's Political Discourses, No. IX.

(96) This bounty of the crown was seconded by a number of patriots, under the name of the Marine Society, who raised a sum of 20,000 l. sterling, with which they sent on board the fleet about four thousand seamen, and as many boys.

(97) This stately building was begun in the reign of Charles II. and has been continued under all the succeeding princes, so that now it maintains two thousand invalids. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xiv. and B. III. ch. x. Alberti, Lettr. XVIII.

The

The harbours for the men of war are, Chatham, Deptford, Woolwich, Sheerness, Portsmouth, and Plymouth ; at which places are likewise docks for repairing and rebuilding ships, and large magazines of naval stores and ordnance (98).

S E C T. LIII.

The English reckon by pounds, shillings, ^{English} and pence, sterling (99). A pound sterling is equal to twenty shillings, and a shilling to twelve pence. This division of the money, which agrees with that of the French, was introduced by the kings of the Norman race, that of the Anglo-Saxons being something different (100). A pound was a real pound, or twelve ounces of silver (1) ; and payments formerly were made

(98) Miede, P. I. ch. xxxi.

(99) Concerning the origin and import of this word, there are very different opinions. To me the most probable seems, that it is derived from the Saxon word, Steore, i. e. a rule, or law, and signifies money of the just alloy, according to the established standard. Rapin, Vol. II. p. 59. and Tindal's Rem. (e). It is observed of king John, that he was the first who coined sterling money. Rapin, Vol. II. p. 484.

(100) The Anglo-Saxons divided the pound of silver into forty-eight shillings, and the shillings into five pennies ; so that a pound contained 240 pennies, which exactly agrees with the Norman division. Campbell's Lives of the British Admirals, Vol. I. p. 79.

(1) It may be here cursorily observed, that two weights are used in England, Troy and Averdupois ; the first is used for gold, silver, gems, drugs, corn, &c. the latter in other

by weight (2). But this standard was gradually lowered, though not so much by far as in France, a pound sterling being now coined from four ounces, or the third part of a pound of silver (3). This however, is

goods. The pound Troy consists of twelve ounces; but the Averdupois of sixteen. An ounce Troy outweighs the Averdupois ounce, 51 of the former being equal to 56 of the latter; whereas the pound Troy is lighter than the Averdupois, 17 of the former making only 14 of the latter.

(2) This was in pounds, marks, half marks, shillings, and pennies. The gold mark was equal to six pounds of silver, or 120 shillings, silver money; and the ounce of gold equal to fifteen shillings, silver money. The pound of silver was worth twenty shillings, and the mark of silver thirteen shillings and four pennies. Campbell, Vol. I. § 78.

(3) The most considerable alterations in the English standard of money were made since the time of Edward I. He settled the penny weight at the twentieth part of an ounce Troy, and thus, of a pound of silver, caused to be coined 240 pennies, which at that time was the only current money. In the pound were eleven ounces and two penny-weights fine silver; and eighteen penny-weights alloy; or it contained $11\frac{2}{5}$ ounces fine silver and $1\frac{8}{5}$ alloy. And this proportion of the alloy to the fine silver is still observed in the English silver money. The same king Edward, however, afterwards, made a small alteration in the coin, raising the extrinsic value of the pound of silver, which, till then, had been twenty shillings to twenty shillings three pennies. But Edward III. was the first who raised the pound to twenty-two shillings and a half, and afterwards to twenty-five shillings, and likewise caused the first groats, or fourpenny pieces to be coined. Campbell, Vol. I. p. 147, 151. Henry V. raised the pound of silver to thirty, and Henry VI. to thirty-nine shillings and six pennies. Campbell, Vol. I. p. 172, 173. Under Henry VII a pound of silver made forty shillings; and these were the first actually coined. And under Henry VIII. forty-five were coined from the like weight of silver; and this prince afterwards so increased the alloy, that at length a pound contained only four ounces of pure silver. Campbell, Vol. I. p. 198. Under Edward VI, these irregularities were, in some measure, remedied, and sixty shil-

no actual piece (4), being only a nominal coin, importing twenty shillings.

The real and current coins are,

1. In GOLD:

		l.	s.	d.
Guineas (5)	value	1	1	0
Double ditto	- -	2	2	0
Five guinea pieces	- -	5	5	0
Half guineas	- -	0	10	6
Quarter guineas	- -	0	5	3

2. In SILVER:

Crowns	-	value	0	5	0
Half crowns	-	-	0	2	6
Shillings	-	-	0	0	12

lings coined out of a pound of silver. This new standard was afterwards completely rectified under queen Elizabeth, and has constantly been retained ever since. Campbell, Vol. I. p. 227. 280. So that the present pound sterling is only the third part of the ancient pound.

(4) Charles I. indeed caused twenty shilling pieces to be coined, which made exactly a pound sterling, but they are extremely scarce.

(5) The guineas were so called from the country of that name, most of the gold of which they were first coined, (and this was under Charles II.) being brought from Guinea. Miede, P. I. ch. xiv. They were originally coined only for twenty shillings; but the great scarcity of gold afterwards gave occasion to their being raised to twenty-one shillings, Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. iii. The total of gold coined in England from the 20th of July 1660 to the 31st of December 1748, amounts to twenty-eight millions nine hundred and forty-one thousand six hundred and sixteen pounds, two shillings, and one penny three farthings, according to the value of ingot gold. View of the Gold Coin and Coinage of England, London, 1763.

There are likewise pieces of six, four, three, two pennies, and single pennies.

3. In COPPER:

Halfpenny and farthings (6).

In the first years of king William's reign, the clipping of the silver coin so far prevailed, that a guinea became worth thirty shillings; but in 1695, this evil was remedied, though at a vast expence, by re-coining all the light silver money afresh (7).

The general mint for Great Britain and Ireland is in the Tower of London; and any one may have his gold and silver coined, and receive its full value, without any deductions for coinage (2).

The proportion between gold and silver in England, is about one to fourteen and a half (a). The coin of England is not to be exported, except that travellers are allowed to carry five pounds sterling with them (b).

(6) These copper pieces were chiefly coined for the convenience of small change, and nobody is obliged to take above a shilling of them in the payment of rents or debts. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. ii.

(7) This was done by a plan of the then chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Montague, afterwards earl of Halifax. See Memoirs of the Life of Charles Montague, Earl of Halifax, p. 29, 35.

(2) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. ii. and ch. x.

(a) Chamberlayne, *ibid.*

(b) Alberti, Lettr. LXX.

To-

Towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign, the ready money in England was computed at four millions; and at the time of the revolution, at eighteen millions of pounds sterling (8).

In Scotland the standard of money was In Scotland. formerly the same as in England, and a Scotch pound was a pound of pure silver; but the value of Scotch money became so diminished, that thirty-six pounds were coined out of one pound of silver, at which it has ever since remained. Though by the treaty of Union the English standard was to take place in Scotland (c), yet many continue reckoning these by pounds, marks, shillings, and pennies. The Scotch pound makes about one shilling and eight pence, and the mark one shilling and one penny sterling (d).

The Irish money was formerly of the In Ireland. same value as the English, till the time of Edward IV. who caused it to be coined one-fourth part worse than that of England; so that afterwards, an Irish shilling was

(8) This is Campbell's computation, Vol. I. p. 281. and Vol. II. p. 292. Others, however, are something higher in their accounts. See Hooke's Essay on the National Debt, p. 16, 22. and this author, in p. 17. reckons the ready specie in England, in the year 1748, at thirty millions.

(c) Chamberlayne, P. II. B. III. ch. ii. p. 116.

(d) Letters concerning Scotland, Vol. I. Lett. XII. and XIII.

worth no more than nine pence in England (e).

S E C T LIV.

Revenue.
I. Ordinary.

The crown revenues were formerly considerable, having, besides many demesnes, a multitude of other dues and emoluments (9). But the greater part of the demesnes having, in the course of time, been alienated, and the other branches of the former revenue almost totally extinguished, these revenues, at present, chiefly arise from several taxes and impositions levied by parliament, and, consequently, cannot so well be termed the king's revenue, as that of the kingdom and nation. Of these the most copious sources are, the land-tax (10),

(e) Campbell, Vol. I. p. 184.

(9) The royal revenues under the Norman and Plantagenet kings, consisted chiefly of seven branches; 1. Demesnes; 2. Escheats; 3. Feudal and other profits, payable by the heirs of vassals on taking possession of the fiefs fallen to them. Among these may likewise be reckoned the revenues of the vacant bishoprics and abbies, of which the king was patron; 4. The yearly farms of counties and towns; 5. Fines and amercements; 6. Aids, scutages, tallages, and customs; and 7. Casual profits, as treasures found, strand-right, the effects of exiles or malefactors executed. Concerning all these, see Rapin, Vol. II. p. 236. n. p. 351. h. III. p. 401. u. p. 485. s. and Vol. III. p. 182.

(10) At the time of the Revolution in 1688, the yearly rents of all the lands in England were computed at ten millions of pounds sterling; so that the land-tax at two shillings in the pound, which was usually the case, produced a million. But by the improvements and increase of agriculture,

the

the customs (11), the excise (12), the post-office (13), and the stamp duties. These are the ordinary revenues, and annually amount to between five and six millions of pounds sterling.

S E C T. LV.

But when these do not answer the annual expences, some of them are heightened, as the land-tax (14), the customs and excise of several goods, and other taxes, as

II. Extraordinary.

the annual rents of the farms in England and Scotland are, at the lowest rate, estimated at twenty millions. Miede, P. I. ch. vi.

(11) This is one of the most important branches, its annual produce rather exceeding two millions. The imports have heavy duties on them, and the exports as much favoured. To the customs belong likewise the tonnage and poundage; the arbitrary raising of which first embroiled king Charles with his parliament. See Rapin, Vol. VIII. p. 466. and for the nature of these duties, the same volume, p. 44, 45. with Tindal's Rem. s.

(12) Payable on beer, spirituous liquors, malt, hops, paper, coffee, tea, chocolate, and several other commodities. The yearly produce of those duties is reckoned full a million and a half.

(13) The post-office, which was erected soon after the year 1660, at first brought in but 21,000*l*. Rapin, Vol. XI. p. 201, 255. b. It was afterwards put under better regulations, and extended over the whole kingdom, so that its present revenue is computed at not less than 130,000 pounds. Under this general-post there is likewise the penny-post, which brings in something considerable, besides the convenience of sending letters all over London, and seven miles round it. The post-office revenue is entirely appropriated to the king. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. III. ch. x.

(14) Instead of the usual one, or two shillings in the pound, three or four have been paid.

on houses (15), hackney coaches and other carriages, salaries, and pensions ((f)). These make a part of the extraordinary revenues, and produce about two millions.

S E C T. LVI.

In Scotland.

Scotland, by virtue of the treaty of Union, pays custom and excise equally with England (16); but its land-tax does not amount to so much as the fortieth part of that of England (17).

In Ireland.

The revenue of Ireland is entirely laid out in maintaining the army, and other expences in that kingdom; so that nothing of it comes to England, except part of the pensions granted by the king on the establishment (18).

(15) This tax is generally laid on windows, according to their number, but the produce of it is pretty well ascertained. Under Charles II. it was laid on chimnies or hearths. Muralt, Lettr. III. But this being a heavy oppression on the lower class, it was abolished, on a representation from king William.

((f)) Concerning the English taxes in general, see Dangeuille's Observations on the Advantages and Disadvantages of France and Great Britain relatively to Trade, p. 239.

(16) The revenue of Scotland is but inconsiderable, and for some years past, even including the land-tax, has been reckoned only at 110,000 l. sterling. Chamberlayne, B. II. ch. ii.

(17) When the land-tax in England produces 1,997,763 l. 8s. 4 d. Scotland pays only 48,000 l.

(18) These, in the year 1763, amounted to 70,000 l. sterling, which gave occasion to a motion in the parliament of Ireland to petition the king, that these pensions might be withdrawn, and the money applied to the good of the country. But the motion miscarried.

Great

Great Britain receives no immediate income from its East India and African possessions, neither from its large and flourishing colonies in America (19); but their many commodities, with the profits accruing from them, and the duties paid on the importation of them, greatly increase the wealth of the kingdom, and, consequently, the national revenue.

From the
East Indies,
Africa, and
America.

S E C T. LVII.

The levying of the revenue is an article of very large expence, by reason of the multitude of officers employed. The customs have nine commissioners, with six or seven hundred inferior officers. The management of the excise is under nine commissioners, with between two and three thousand officers of different ranks; besides commissioners and officers of other branches of the revenue (g). The monies are all paid into the exchequer (20); where, like-

Levying the
revenue,

(19) So far from it, that the parliament has often granted considerable sums for the peopling or improvement of the American colonies; but in 1764, several taxes were laid, payable into the exchequer of England, to clear the charges incurred for the defence of the said colonies. *Merc. Hist. Polit.* 1764, p. 318, 319.

(g) Miegge, P. I. ch. xxxiii.

(20) This office in Latin is called *Scaccarium*, from which the English is derived; as the appellation itself is, from the chequered cloth on the table in the court of exchequer.

wife,

wife, are made the payments pursuant to orders from the treasury (21).

In Scotland some branches of the revenue are farmed (22). In Ireland the taxes are levied in the same manner as in England; but it has its own particular treasury.

S E C T. LVIII.

King's particular revenue.

The king has the management of all the revenues of the state; yet applying them to the services for which they are granted, according to estimates laid before the par-

Rapin, Vol. II. p. 119. and Tindal's Rem. M. 1. In the exchequer is likewise kept the famous tax-book, by the English called Doomsday Book, which was composed by order of William the Conqueror; it contains an account not only of all the cities, towns, and villages, but likewise families, and what every one possessed, either in land or money; and when any difference arose about those matters, or the taxes, the book cleared up the point: it is kept under three locks and keys, not to be searched under 6s. 8d. nor any part transcribed under four pence per line. Miede, P. I. ch. xxxiii.

(21) In the year 1696, the coining of the silver over again occasioning an extreme scarcity of money, payments were made in the exchequer by paper money, called exchequer bills, bearing a certain interest, and received in the public offices and trade as ready money; they soon rose to such credit as to be better than ready money, and have since been made use of on all exigencies. This scheme was owing to the chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Montague, afterwards earl of Halifax. See Memoirs of the earl of Halifax, p. 42, 44.

(22) The customs and excise. The former were for some years farmed at 35,000l. and the latter at 34,000l. Chamberlayne, P. II. B. II. ch. ii.

liament

liament by the several offices (23). For the support of his family and court a considerable sum is granted him out of the most certain revenues, and is termed the Civil List (24). If these funds do not answer, or any extraordinary incidents have necessarily increased the court-expences, and, consequently, the civil list is in debt, the parliament usually grants a sum for clearing it (25).

(23) This was formerly otherwise, the king having the absolute disposal of all the revenues, which, accordingly, were called the Crown Revenues, without any distinction between those granted for the king's own personal use, or the service of the state. Thus he might reserve for his own private views whatever he pleased; and, on the other hand, bestow for the public good only just what he thought fit. Upon this footing were the revenues since the restoration of Charles II. who, instead of applying the monies granted him by parliament for the service of the nation, used to lavish them away on his pleasures. But at the Revolution, the parliament availed itself of that happy juncture to assume the sole disposal of the public revenues (the civil list excepted); the king only taking care that they should be employed to the uses for which they were assigned. Accordingly, on the opening of every session of parliament, the accounts of the preceding year are delivered in; before which, no new subsidies are granted. Tindal's Contin. of Rapin, Vol. XIII. p. 134, 135.

(24) King William III. had 600,000 l. for his civil list, and in 1698, 700,000 l. See Tindal, Vol. XIII. p. 137. Vol. XIV. p. 422, 423. Queen Anne had the like sum. The parliament raised it to 800,000 l. in favour of George I. in consideration of the number of the royal family. This was continued to George II. besides a 100,000 for the queen, and the like sum for the prince of Wales. Miede, P. I. ch. xxxiii.

(25) This has been done several times, particularly in 1725, under George I. and in 1728, under George II. See Tindal, Vol. XIX. p. 524, 525. and Vol. XX. p. 45.

S E C T. LIX.

National
debt.

Great Britain has, since the Revolution, been engaged in four long and expensive wars, in support of the balance of Europe and its own rights (26); and in these wars, besides employing a great force of its own both by sea and land, likewise paid very considerable subsidies to foreign princes. Such measures indispensably occasioning many extraordinary charges (27), the state contracted debts; which, being increased from time to time (28), are now swelled to a

(26) Namely, from 1688 to 1697, from 1702 to 1713; from 1739 to 1748; and from 1755 to 1762; not to mention the more short wars and the many naval armaments, 1718, 1719, 1720, and 1721, 1726, 1727, and 1735.

(27) According to public accounts, the parliament of England, during the four great wars since the year 1693, has granted the following sums.

Under William III. in the first war	25,527,527
Under Anne, in the second	59,065,334
Under George II. in the third	59,859,819
Under George II. and III. in the fourth	92,665,376
	237,058,556

(28) Before the Revolution, England owed little or nothing; but the subsequent wars requiring extraordinary subsidies, which it was not thought adviseable to raise immediately by onerous taxes, large sums were borrowed at interest, in expectation of easily liquidating them in peaceable times. But fresh wars succeeding, frustrated this expectation, and consequently the national debt went on increasing. At the peace of Ryswic, in 1697, it amounted to 19,930,080 l.; and after that of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1751, 77,497,397 l. sterling. M. De Real, Science du Gouvernem. Part. I. Tom. II. p. 352—354.

most

most monstrous sum (29). This burden, however, is felt with less inconveniency in

(29) On the 5th of January 1764, the total of the national debt was 129,586,789 l. sterling, ten shillings, and a farthing; the yearly interest of which came to 4,688,177 l. eleven shillings; and this exclusively of the navy debt, which made a sum of between three and four millions. On the 5th of January 1765, the debt amounted to 131,386,789 l. ten shillings and a halfpenny. Merc. Hist. & Polit. May 1764, p. 575. and Merc. 1765, p. 299. The Jacobites, and other enemies of the present government, have made a handle of this debt for invectives against the Revolution, as a most destructive event to the nation; whereas impartial people look on it in quite another light; for it is undeniable, that since that period, the power and dignity of the crown, as likewise the trade and marine of the nation, have risen to a very high pitch. Farther, the share of the Britons themselves in the capital of this debt is by far the greater, the shares of all foreigners being computed but at one quarter, or, at most, a little above; so that, in this respect, what some say is not without truth, "That the debts of the crown are the riches of the nation." An English writer, who, after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, published an Essay on the National Debt of England, estimated in the year 1749, the national capital at a thousand millions, the national yearly income at a hundred, and the annual augmentation of the national capital at eleven millions and a half. From these premises he infers, that the national debt, which he then allowed to be eighty millions, though something short of that sum, did not make the twelfth part of the nation's capital, and the interest not the thirtieth part of the national income; and that the whole national debt might be discharged in seven years by the annual increase of the nation's capital. He advances farther, "That the nation, so far from being weakened by the debt, is as powerful and as able as ever, either for attack or defence; that the debts may still remain unpaid for many years, without any hurt to the constitution; and might be increased two-fold without any fear of a bankruptcy." See Hooke's Essay on the National Debt, p. 31. 34. 35. This author appears to have been pretty right in his conjecture, the national debt having, in the last war, been actually increased above one-third, without any considerable inconveniency to the state, or any danger of public credit.

England

England than it would be, perhaps, in any other state; public credit being so firmly established, that whatever sums the crown stands in need of, and this in the most pressing exigencies, are readily subscribed for, and actually raised. But as this credit is chiefly supported by a due clearing of the interests, and this is not to be done without a continuance of burthensome taxes, which at length must prove detrimental, if not fatal, to the nation and the state (30); some pretend to foresee that it cannot hold out long, but some way or other must come to a final period (31).

S E C T. LX.

Sinking
fund.

The creditors of the crown have, for their security, certain funds assigned to them on the public revenues, from which the interests are paid them every half year. But these interests being at first very high, some even above six per cent. they have

(30) The author of a small French piece takes upon him to predict, from the national debt and the taxes consequential to it, the great quantity of paper money, and the rise of provisions and all necessaries, that the English trade will be soon reduced to a very low ebb, as they cannot sell their goods so cheap as other nations.

(31) The celebrated Mr. Hume puts three possible cases by which this may come to pass. See his Political Discourses, Disc. VIII. of Public Credit, p. 136, 141.

been

been gradually lowered (32): and it was afterwards resolved, that the duties from which the said funds were payable, should be continued till the national debts and interest were totally paid off. And as the lowering of the interests annually caused a considerable surplus in the produce of this fund, this increasing surplus was particularly appropriated for discharging the national debt, under the name of the Sinking Fund (33). This, indeed, has yet discharged but a minute part of the national

(32) In the year 1717, the interest was reduced from six to five per cent. and in 1749, from four to three and a half per cent. which were to be paid from the 25th of December 1750, to the 25th of December 1757; at which time they were to bear only three per cent. In this, however, there was no compulsion, it being left to the creditor's option either to withdraw their capitals, or accept of a lower interest. Most chose the latter, so that few capitals were discharged.

(33) This fund, from the year of its institution 1717, to 1762, was increased to 65,354,144 l. the annual interest of which amounted to two millions. Other schemes have been tried for paying off the national debt. Among these, the famous plan of 1720, of uniting all the public funds into one. To this purpose, the Bank and South-Sea company made several proposals to the house of commons. They both saw the great advantage of incorporating the national debt with their capital, and thus augmenting it in proportion. For this permission, they offered great sums towards discharging the debt; but, at length, the South-Sea company proved the highest bidder, offering 7,567,520 l. which being accepted by the parliament, brought about the famous South-Sea Act. Then it was that began the trade for shares in that company, which was carried on with the like ardour as that of the Mississippi, a little before, in France, and came to the like distressful end. Tindal's Contin. of Rapin, Vol. XIX. p. 328—333. and 352 to 422.

debt,

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

debt, considerable sums having been taken from it for other uses (34). So far, however, it has been of use to the state, as, on several occasions, removing the necessity of contracting new debts, or imposing new taxes.

S E C T. LXI.

Agriculture.

The English consider the profits of their lands as the principal article; so that agriculture is not only cultivated among them with great industry, but, as it well deserves, is valued and held in repute. Many wealthy persons make it their occupation; and their most eminent literati have published some excellent treatises on it (*b*). The government, likewise, encourages it by considerable rewards (35); which has proved such an incentive to the farmers, who, in England, are generally in easy circumstances, and many even rich, that more corn is annually exported from this kingdom than from any other country in Europe (36).

(34) This alienation has, more than once, been violently opposed in parliament, but without effect. Tindal, Vol. XX. p. 144, 179.

(*b*) Le Blanc, Tom. II. Lettr. XLI.

(35) The parliament, in 1689, allowed a bounty on corn exported from England in English bottoms. See Dangeuil's Observations on the commercial Advantages and Disadvantages of France and Great Britain, p. 59.

(36) Between the year 1746 and 1750, the value of the several kinds of grain exported from fifty-seven English harbours, amounted to 7,405,786*l*. Ibid. p. 57.

S E C T.

S E C T. LXII.

England had formerly very few manu-
 factories, except that of cloth, the im-
 provement of which Edward III. put every
 measure in practice to promote (37). This
 manufacture is of the longest standing, and,
 with that of other woollen stuffs, of which
 the English make great quantities, the most
 important; employing multitudes of hands,
 and being the fund of a most extensive and
 profitable commerce *. Queen Elizabeth
 not only raised the woollen manufactory to
 great prosperity, but encouraged the setting
 up many others, till then unknown in Eng-
 land; bountifully receiving the protestants
 of the Low Countries and France, who,
 flying from persecution, brought over many
 improvements in the woollen and silk ma-
 nufactures, and other arts and handi-
 crafts (k). Under Charles II. the nation
 in general was infatuated with a fondness

English ma-
 nufactures.

(37) He not only invited weavers from Flanders into England, but dyers and fullers, (Rymer. A&T. Publ. Tom. II. P. III. p. 68.) so that, so early as his time, abundance of cloth was exported, but much more raw and spun wool. Campbell's Lives of British Admirals, Vol. I. p. 150.

* On this account the exportation of English wool has been strictly forbidden; yet are considerable quantities of it run over to France.

(k) Campbell's Lives of British Admirals, Vol. I. p. 252, 253.

for French commodities, to the extreme detriment of their own manufactures. But a war breaking out with France soon after king William's accession to the throne, all French goods were prohibited. This gave rise to several new manufactures in England, as various kinds of silks, stuffs, hats, paper, linen, common glass and looking-glass, with hardware of several metals, most of which before came from France (1). The French refugees flocking to England on the revocation of the edict of Nantes, farther contributed to the improvement of these and other manufactures: the English workmen are very ingenious (38), and, among other commendable qualities, endeavour to give their several works all the perfection they will admit of: this skill and attention are particularly conspicuous in their mathematical, chirurgical, and other instruments (39). Accordingly, English goods are greatly esteemed all over Europe.

(1) *Considerations sur le Commerce de la Grande Bretagne*, ch. i. p. 7, 9.

(38) This ingenuity appears in the many machines for dispatching work; as, with some, a single hand will do what otherwise would require thirty. *Le Blanc, Lettr. VIII.*

(39) This abbé Le Blanc allows, but for works of ornament and taste he prefers the French. *Lettr. VIII.*

The manufactures of Scotland, far from In Scotland. being formerly very inconsiderable, have received great improvements since the Union; so that they now make great quantities of cloth and other woollen goods, particularly very fine stockings (40): but the chief article is linen, and some even of the finer sort, as cambrick, lawn, damask, and the like (*m*).

Ireland owes its manufactures to the And in Ireland. English, who, from time to time, have settled there. The principal are, woollen stuffs and linens (41). But for some time past, a truly patriotic zeal (42) has exerted itself for the encouragement of other arts and handicrafts, and, in several articles, not without tolerable success.

S E C T . L X I I I .

The English have always looked on trade Great trade of the English. as the source of their wealth, power, and hap-

(40) The best and finest are made at Aberdeen; and it is not very uncommon for a pair to be sold for thirty English shillings. Chamberlayne, P. II. B. I. ch. iii.

(*m*) Miede, P. II. ch. ii. and Dangeuil's Remarks.

(41) This manufacture has been brought to great perfection in a short time: the Irish linen, both for goodness, and fineness, is not inferior to the best that is any where made.

(42) A society has for some time been instituted at Dublin for encouraging manufactures, trade, and agriculture, and distributes every year fourscore prizes. Dangeuil's Remarks, p. 109.

piness ; and the government has, as it were, vied with the nation in zealous and constant endeavours to promote it. Trade is considered in England as a science, not less necessary and advantageous than any other part of learning ; and the most learned have accounted their labours well bestowed in unfolding and illustrating the principles of commerce (*n*). It is held in such esteem that the younger sons of noble families are often brought up to merchandize, and without any derogation to their rank. By the concurrence of all these advantages, the trade of Great Britain is become the most extensive and most considerable in the world. By its situation as an island, with the multitude and goodness of its products and manufactures, it is peculiarly adapted to so large a commerce. The inhabitants themselves carry on no inconsiderable traffick along the coast (43) ; but for inland trade, the goods chiefly go by carriages, England having very few navigable rivers, and no canals.

I. Inland
trade.

(*n*) Dangeuil's Remarks, p. 107.

(43) This coasting trade is very considerable, especially if in it be included that of coals, which only between London and Newcastle employs one thousand ships. Miede, P. I. ch. xiii.

S E C T. LXIV.

This domestic traffick, however, is but the smaller part of English commerce; that carried on with foreigners extending to every part of the universe. In Europe the English trade with all nations; the greater part of their shipping, however, make their voyages to Italy, Portugal, Spain, France, the Low Countries, and Russia. More foreign ships come into English ports from the other parts of Europe (44) than those which go from England thither; and it is only in its Dutch, Spanish, and Portugueze trade, that England is a gainer: for its exports to those countries exceed the imports, and consequently it receives the surplus in specie; as with other European states, where the balance of trade is against them, accounts must be closed with money (45).

II. Foreign
trade.
I. In Europe,

The trade to the Levant, or Turkey, from being carried on by a particular com-

II. To the
Levant.

(44) Concerning the goods which England sends to the several European countries and receives from them, see *Considerations sur le Commerce de la Gr. Br.* ch. iii.—xiii. p. 15—28.

(45) This is more especially the case in the trade with France. It was formerly computed that the French annually received no less than 1,450,000*l.* in balance; enough indeed to make the French trade to be looked on as detrimental. *Guardian*, Vol. II. N. 170. For the trade to the other European states, see *Considerations sur le Commerce de la Gr. Br.*

pany, is now, under certain conditions, open to all the inhabitants of Great Britain (*o*). This commerce does not, at first, seem to be a national advantage, as requiring ready money to make up the deficiency of English goods; but the goods exported from these parts being, for the most part, raw, the nation always makes itself amends by manufacturing and re-exporting them.

III. To Africa.

The African trade is manifestly advantageous to England, as requiring no cash; it not only supplies the American colonies with negroes, but great numbers are sold to the Spaniards in the West-Indies, and for a large profit in ready money. Gold dust is brought from the coast of Guinea (*q*). This trade, which was likewise carried on formerly by an exclusive company, has, for some years, been put on a quite different footing, and, in some measure, made free.

IV. To the East-Indies.

The East-India trade, now limited to an exclusive company, reaches from the Cape of Good Hope, along Arabia, Persia, the coast of Malabar and Coromandel, Bengal, and on to China. The greater part of it is carried on in cash, together with some manufactures; and the returns are all in goods

(*o*) See Dangeuil's Observations, p. 163.

(*q*) Ibid. ch. xx, p. 39.

of innumerable kinds. This could not but be a sensible damage to England, were not a great part of such goods disposed of in re-exportations, which bring the ready money home again. One advantage of this trade to the nation, is the silk from Bengal and China; and it would be still greater, were this commodity not loaded with excessive duties (r).

But the most advantageous branch of the English trade is the American; their colonies taking off immense quantities of their manufactures, and sending them goods, of which a very great part is re-exported, as sugar, rum, tobacco, rice, some spices and drugs, with all the gold and silver they get (46). These colonies likewise traffick to a considerable amount with one another; and with the Spanish continent, which they supply with corn and other necessaries. They likewise trade to Europe with Spain and Portugal, carrying thither pipe-staves, lumber, and fish (s); and the British em-

(r) *Considerat. sur le Commerce Gr. Br. ch. xxi. p. 41, 42.*

(46) How profitable the colony trade is to the English, may, in some measure, be concluded from their sending every year three hundred ships only to the sugar islands; and that in 1726, the manufactures exported to Barbadoes, the Leeward Islands, and Jamaica, amounted to 234,785*l.* *Hamburg Magazine, Vol. XXV. p. 633.*

(s) *Considerat. sur le Commerce de la Gr. Br. ch. xiv. p. 31, 38.*

pire in America having been very much enlarged by the conquests of the last war, its commerce must likewise have received a great addition.

At the peace which followed that war, the British subjects obtained the liberty of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras, which the Spaniards, for a long time, would not hear of.

S E C T. LXV.

Trade of
Scotland.

Scotland had but little or no trade before its union with England; but since that transaction it has greatly increased, by the liberty of trading to the English colonies in America, the Levant, and Africa. Besides its dealings with England and Ireland, it carries on no small trade with all other European countries. Its exports are woollens and linens, salmon, herrings, stock-fish, tallow, wax, raw hides, coals, &c. bringing back, for the most part, such goods as find a good market at home (†).

And of
Ireland.

Ireland would make a considerable figure in trade, were it not for the restraints laid on it by the government of England, for better securing its dependency. So far from being allowed to bring all kinds of goods to

(†) Miegé, P. II. ch. iii.

England, its woollens must not so much as be exported to other countries, lest the English woollens should suffer in price; whereas the English furnish it with fine cloths, rich silk stuffs, gold and silver-lace, hardware, and many other goods; for which most of the returns are made in specie. The Irish, however, export great quantities of salt-beef, tallow, butter, soap, and raw hides, to France, the Netherlands, Spain, and Portugal. It is their profits in this traffick which enables them to pay the English for their commodities; and thus England appears to be the chief gainer by the trade of Ireland (u).

S E C T. LXVI.

A great part of the foreign trade is carried on by particular companies, of which one of the most ancient is the Russian, which had its commencement under Edward VI. on the discovery of Archangel by captain Chancellor (x). This company endeavoured to establish a trade to Persia, by the way of the Caspian sea; and in the year 1581, actually sent a ship for that purpose, but it being wrecked, the under-

Trading
companies
in England.

I. The
Russian.

(u) Considerat. sur le Commerce de la Gr. Br. ch. xiii.

(x) Campbell's Lives, &c. Vol. I. p. 245. Hanway's Travels, Vol. I. P. I. ch. i.

taking

taking was dropped (*y*). The design of it was to fetch raw silk from Persia, and bring it through Russia to England. Towards the close of the year 1743, a fresh attempt was made with two ships; but the court of Russia, from several circumstances, found it not adviseable to allow of this immediate trade to Persia, that since the year 1745, it has been again discontinued (*z*).

II. The
Turkey
company.

The Turkey company was erected under queen Elizabeth, and obtained a charter from king James I. Its members were then chiefly London merchants (*a*), but such complaints have, from time to time, been raised against the exclusive trade of this company, that, in 1753, it was abolished by act of parliament, allowing every inhabitant of Great Britain to trade to the Levant, on paying twenty pounds sterling to the company (*b*).

III. The
African.

The African company, founded by Charles II. in 1672, after some prosperous beginnings (*c*), fell into such a declension, that in the year 1751, the parliament found it

(*y*) Campbell's Lives, &c. Vol. I. p. 245. Hanway's Travels, Vol. I. P. I. ch. i. p. 7, 8.

(*z*) Ibid. Vol. I. P. I. ch. iii. ch. vi. ch. ix. and Vol. II. P. I. ch. ix.

(*a*) Dangeuill's Remarks, p. 153.

(*b*) Tindal's Contin. of Rapin, Vol. XXI. p. 461.

(*c*) History of the Gold Coast in the Modern Univers. Hist. Vol. XVII. p. 15, 16.

necessary to purchase their charter for 112,142 l. and in some measure laid the trade open to the whole nation (*d*).

But among these several companies, the most considerable is the East-India, to which queen Elizabeth gave a charter in the year 1600; and so successful was it, that its capital, which at first was only 369,891 l. 5s. increased to 1,703,422 l. (*e*). But about the year 1691, violent complaints being made about its misconduct, by which the nation suffered, not only in its profit, but its honour (*f*); the consequence was, that in 1698, king William III. erected a new company, with a capital of two millions, which they lent to the crown at eight per cent. (*g*). Thus England had two East India companies, doing all the damage they could to each other, and labouring each other's ruin: but in 1701, an agreement was brought about, which gave birth to the United East India Company, as it was afterwards called, and still subsisting in great prosperity (*h*). This company, at present, besides an extensive and profitable

IV. The
East India
company.

(*d*) Tindal, Vol. XXI. p. 444.

(*e*) History of the English East India Company in Mod. Univers. Hist. Vol. X. p. 14, 15.

(*f*) Ibid. Vol. X. p. 98, &c.

(*g*) Ibid. p. 131, 138.

(*h*) Ibid. p. 139, 144.

trade,

trade, has so enlarged itself by conquests in Bengal, that, next to the Dutch East India company, it makes the greatest figure in that part of the world (*i*). A debt of 4,200,000, is likewise due to it from the crown and public.

V. The
South Sea
company.

The South Sea company was originally a creature of the famous earl of Oxford, sometime lord high-treasurer in queen Anne's time. It was erected in 1711, and its capital consisted of several national debts, making in the whole the sum of 9,471,325*l*. for which the crown promised a yearly interest of six per cent. and assigned funds for that purpose. The charter gave it an exclusive trade to the South Sea (47). But, at the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, all it could obtain was a very limited licence to send annually one or two ships of a stipulated burden (*l*); and the *Asientos*, or slave-trade, to the Spanish American colonies for thirty

(*i*) See § 10.

(47) This trade was only a mere chimera; for the earl of Oxford, who, even at that time, meditated a peace which should leave Philip V. in possession of the Spanish throne, very well knew that the English would never be allowed any such commerce; and that the slave-trade was all he could expect: of this the crown of Great Britain procured a promise in the twelfth article of the peace of Utrecht, which it afterwards granted to the South Sea company. Tindal, Vol. XVII. p. 361. Campbell, Vol. II. p. 432.

(*l*) Ibid. Ibid.

years.

years (*m*). But this has often been interrupted by the subsequent misunderstandings and wars between Great Britain and Spain; and thus the company deprived of a great part of its gains (48). At present, it deals only in cash, and subsists on the interest of the capitals due to it from the crown, which at present amount to the sum of 27,125,309 (*n*). The plan, in 1720, for its discharging the national debt, with its calamitous issue (*o*), will, even should the company itself be extinguished, cause it to be remembered in the annals of Great Britain (49).

Lastly, among all these trading companies, the Bank of England is intitled to the first place. It was erected in 1694, and like the East India and South Sea companies, owes its existence to the national debts. Its credit, at first none of the most solid and stable, was so well established by the government's prudent measures, that its notes

VI. The
Bank of
England.

(*m*) Campbell's Lives, &c. Vol. II. p. 432.

(48) At the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, the continuance of the slave-trade was stipulated in its behalf for four years; but in 1750, they gave up this privilege in consideration of 100,000*l.* sterling paid to them by the king of Spain. Tindal, Vol. XXI. p. 421.

(*n*) Merc. Hist. & Polit. May 1764.

(*o*) See above, § 62. (84).

(49) Other trading companies, as the Hamburg, the Hudson's Bay, the British Fishery, &c. I omit for brevity's sake, and of less importance.

have

have been continually taken in all payments as cash (*p*); and in all pecuniary exigencies it is the government's best support: the sums which it has, at several times, procured by its credit, amounted at the beginning of the year 1764 to 96,239,438 l. sterling (*q*).

S E C T. LXVII.

Sea ports
and trading
towns.

England has the advantage of many excellent sea-ports and harbours on all sides. On the Channel are, Portsmouth, Dartmouth, Plymouth, Falmouth; on the North Sea, Newcastle, Sunderland, Hull, Yarmouth, and Harwich; on the Irish Sea, Liverpool, Whitehaven; and at the mouth of the Severn, Bristol. But the largest and most opulent trading place in England, I may venture to say, on the whole earth, is London; the staple and magazine for every useful, curious, and costly commodity of the four parts of the world. A pre-eminence partly owing to its commodious situation on the Thames (50).

(*p*) Tindal, Vol. XIV. p. 126, 335, 336. Mieke, P. I. ch. ix.

(*q*) Merc. Hist. & Polit. May 1764, p.

(50) ————— Every foreign flood

Subjected, pays its tribute to the Thames.

Thither the golden South obedient pours

His sunny treasures; thither the soft East

Her spices, delicacies, gentle gifts;

And thither his rough trade the stormy North.

THOMPSON'S Alfred, in his Works, Vol. III. p. 255.

Scot-

Scotland's best harbours are Dunbar, In Scotland and Ireland. Leith, and Glasgow; and those of Ireland, Dublin, Galway, Corke, Kinsale, and Limerick.

S E C T. LXVIII.

The domestic and foreign affairs of government are deliberated on in the privy council. Administration of state affairs. The prince of Wales and the other princes of the royal family, the archbishops of Canterbury and York, the great officers of the crown, and the speaker of the house of commons, are privy counsellors by office; and besides these the king names other at pleasure. He is often present in person at the meetings of the privy council; but in his absence, the lord president proposes the subject to be deliberated on, and reports the result to the king. The king has likewise a Cabinet Council, which consists of a select number of privy counsellors, whom he consults on the more important and secret affairs.

The two secretaries of state are likewise members of the privy council by virtue of their office (51), which is of great weight.

(51) There was formerly but one secretary of state, till Henry VIII. appointed two, who, being equal in dignity, were both termed principal secretaries of state; they did not then sit in the privy council, but, when it was assembled,

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

The domestic concerns are common to both; he before whom they are laid takes care of them; but the foreign are divided between them, each having his particular province, one the northern, and the other the southern. The former includes the Netherlands, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Poland, Prussia, and Russia; the latter consists of Portugal, Spain, France, Italy, Switzerland, and Turkey. Each secretary of state has his office, and two under-secretaries, with eight or nine clerks, all of his own appointment (r).

Under the secretaries of state are the signet-office (52) and the paper-office (53). Since the union of the two kingdoms, a secretary of state was likewise appointed for Scotland, and he, by virtue of his office, is a member of the privy council (s). This office has for some time been intermitted. A secretary

came from an adjoining apartment, where they prepared the affairs to be laid before the council, standing on each side of the king. But this was altered in queen Elizabeth's time, and the secretaries of state sat in the privy council, as they have ever since. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. x.

(r) Miede, ch. xxxiv.

(52) These secretaries have the keeping of the king's signet, with which the king's grants are sealed, and then transmitted to the lord privy seal, in order to his putting that seal to them. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. x.

(53) In the paper-office are kept all public letters and instruments which go through the secretaries office. Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. x.

(s)

of

of state has lately been created for the colonies. For the administration of the colonies, a council of trade has been erected, consisting of eight members (54).

S E C T. LXIX.

In every county the king annually appoints a sheriff, who is its chief magistrate, and puts in execution the king's orders, and the sentences of the courts of judicature, both in criminal and civil matters, and causes the king's dues to be levied. He has an under-sheriff, several clerks, and other servants to assist him in the execution of his office (†).

Government in the English counties.

At the Union, both the privy council and parliament of Scotland were superseded; but the high offices of the crown, the court, and the law, still remain. The counties in Scotland, like those in England, have their sheriffs (55), and in most this office was formerly hereditary; but in 1747, this

In Scotland.

(54) These are called lords commissioners for trade and plantations, and, collectively, the board of trade; they have two secretaries and seven clerks, with other inferior officers. Miede, P. I. ch. xiii. and Chamberlayne, in the List, No. 22.

(†) Chamberlayne, P. I. B. II. ch. xiii. Miede, P. I. ch. xxxviii.

(55) These officers, in the counties of Kirkcubright and Orkney, are called Stewards; but the difference between them and sheriffs is only in the name.

inheritance was abolished by act of parliament (56), and the power of appointing sheriffs lodged in the crown (u).

In Ireland.

The administration in Ireland has been modelled exactly on that of England. The head of it is the viceroy, or lord lieutenant (57), whom the king appoints for one or more years. In his absence, the government is committed to the lord chancellor, and two or three other persons of great distinction, stiled lords justices (x). Ireland being a conquered country, the English government, though it has introduced the laws of England there, keeps it in a strict dependency (58), so that, according to the saying of a celebrated writer, "The inhabitants indeed are free, but the state itself is enslaved (y)." *opposite religion*

(56) Act for abolishing heretable jurisdictions in Scotland, and for making satisfaction to the proprietors.

(u) Miede, P. H. ch. vi.

(57) This is an officer of great power. All posts, employments, very few excepted, are at his disposal; he can likewise pardon all malefactors, except in cases of high treason. Miede, P. III. ch. xii.

(x) *Id.* *Ibid.*

(58) Of this the restriction on the trade of Ireland, mentioned § 67, is one instance among many. The parliament of Great Britain likewise has been known to make alterations in the acts of that of Ireland, particularly on a certain occasion in 1719; and the act of parliament made in consequence of it, was termed, "An Act for securing the Dependency of Ireland." Tindal, Vol. XIX. p. 325.

(y) Montesquieu's Spirit of Laws, Tom. H. B. XIX. ch. xxvii.

The other dependencies, and American colonies, are also under governors, and the political constitution of most resembling that of England. And in the other dependencies.

S E C T. LXX.

Great Britain seems now shining in the very zenith of prosperity, reputation, and power; but the capital points of its policy consist in making a right choice and application of the best means for rendering its felicity permanent. Many of the misfortunes which befel Great Britain in the last century were partly owing to the government, which neither understood nor consulted the nation's welfare, but ignominiously depended on a foreign power of an opposite religion; and partly to the factions which distracted the nation. The Revolution in 1688 put an end to that foreign influence, and public affairs have been conducted more agreeable to the honour and welfare of the kingdom. If the moderation of the court has not totally extinguished, yet has it, at least, very much lessened, party spirit, and kept up a good understanding with the parliament. On considering farther the wise measures taken by the government, for lessening the national debt, for improving the American

Domestic interest of Great Britain.

possessions, now so greatly enlarged (59), and for the advancement of trade, with many other foundations for public utility, Great Britain may promise itself a long continuance of its present happiness and constitution.

Foreign interest.

Great Britain being, as an island, separated from the continent, some of its statesmen have been for making it a maxim of British policy, relatively to foreign affairs, to mind only itself, without regarding the other parts of Europe (2). But this maxim is opposed by others, as running into extremes; the Britons, as a trading kingdom, having always a connection with other nations, and commerce frequently rendering treaties and alliances necessary, so that Great Britain cannot well avoid taking part in continental affairs, and assisting its allies. Accordingly, it has more than once saved Portugal against the hostilities of the Spaniards; and, on several occasions, been instrumental in preserving the balance of Italy and the North: for had any particular power prevailed, it might have shackled the trade of other nations at pleasure.

(59) The vast advantages of these possessions to the mother country, and how greatly they have even increased its population, may be seen in Campbell's *Present State of Europe*, ch. xv.

(2) Campbell's *State of Europe*, ch. xv.

But,

But, exclusive of commercial advantages, there are other motives for which it behoves Great Britain to have an eye to the continent, and preserve the equilibrium. In pursuance of this principle it was, that queen Elizabeth and king William III. opposed the enterprizes of Philip II. and Lewis XIV. when those potentates seemed, by their usurpations on the inferior neighbouring powers, as if they were bringing all Europe under their yoke. The independency and honour, the very support and safety, of the crown produced these measures; and the more vigorous execution of them required great confederacies with foreign powers. In the present fluctuating state of our part of the world they are no less necessary. The last war gave occasion to the family compact between France and Spain, and the other princes of the house of Bourbon; a connection chiefly levelled at Great Britain, the former enmity between the houses of Bourbon and Austria having been superseded by a close friendship. Such a potent coalition has so far disordered the balance of Europe, that nothing under a strong counter-alliance can restore it.

The affairs of Germany cannot be a matter of total indifference to Great Britain, on

account of the king's electoral territories; for tho' they are no part of the British dominions, the parliament, on the breaking out of the former war, resolved, as indeed justice required, that in case of their being attacked on Great Britain's account, they would defend them (a). The alliance with Austria being unexpectedly dissolved, occasioned an alliance with Prussia and the most powerful protestant princes, which was a benefit to Great Britain, as dividing the enemies forces.

Great Britain and the United Provinces have for near a century past been allies, and the Revolution, 1688, was a strong cement to their closer junction; but of late this has been sensibly weakened. The great improvement of the British trade and navy has raised a jealousy and disgust in the United Netherlands, and indeed in all Europe (b). But the government's prudence and moderation, and its punctual observance of treaties may make them easy about any dangerous consequences; and such a conduct will, on the other hand, procure it friends and allies, by whose help, and the vigorous exertion of its own marine, it will

(a) Tindal, Vol. XXI. p. 537.

(b) See above, ch. i. § 57.

be able to baffle the attacks of any combinations, preserve its consideration and power, and consequently maintain its present happiness for a long succession of years (60).

S E C T. LXXI.

The many ancient and modern wars in which Great Britain has been engaged, the considerable part it has taken in the general affairs of Europe, and its extensive commerce, have occasioned a great number of treaties between it and other states, of which the following are the principal :

Treaties
with other
powers.

- I. With France (*c*).
- II. With Spain (*d*).
- III. With Portugal (*e*).
- IV. With the emperor and the house of Austria.

(60) Thus will be verified the prediction which an English poet puts into the mouth of king Solomon, concerning the long continuance of the prosperity and glory of Great Britain.

Long shall Britannia — — —

Be first in conquest and preside in fame.

Long shall her favoured monarchy engage

The teeth of envy and the force of age.

Rever'd and happy, she shall long remain,

Of human things, least changeable, least vain.

Solomon, &c. in PRIOR's Works, p. 330.

(*c*) Ch. iv. § 81 (4).

(*d*) Ch. ii. § 67 (3).

(*e*) Ch. iii. § 57 (3).

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

- (1) Alliances: 1. Of the 7th of September 1701 (*f*). 2. of the 25th of May 1716 (*g*). 3. Of the 19th of March 1731 (*b*). 4. Of the 13th of September 1743 (*i*).

V. With the United Netherlands.

- Alliances: 1. Of the 10th of August 1585 (*k*). 2. Of the 16th of August 1598 (*l*). 3. Of the 26th of June 1608 (*m*). 4. Of the 17th of September 1625 (*n*). 5. Treaty of peace of the 5th of April 1654 (*o*). 6. Alliance and treaty of commerce of the 14th of September 1662 (*p*). 7. Treaty of peace at Breda of the 31st of July 1667 (*q*). 8. Alliance of the 23d of January 1668 (*r*). 9. Treaty of commerce of the 17th of February 1668 (*s*). 10. Treaty of peace at London of the 19th of February 1674 (*t*). 11. Treaty of com-

- (*f*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 89.
 (*g*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 477.
 (*b*) Roussiet, Supplem. Tom. II. P. II. p. 288.
 (*i*) Ibid. Recueil d'Actes & Traitez. Tom. XVIII. p. 83.
 (*k*) Du Mont, Tom. V. P. I. p. 454.
 (*l*) Ibid. Tom. V. P. I. p. 584, & 589.
 (*m*) Rymer. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 160.
 (*n*) Du Mont, Tom. V. P. II. p. 478.
 (*o*) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 74.
 (*p*) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 422.
 (*q*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 44. Mably, Droit Publ. de l'Europe, Tom. I. ch. iii. p. 137.
 (*r*) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. II. p. 66, 68.
 (*s*) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. I. p. 74.
 (*t*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 253.

merce

merce of the 10th of December 1674 (u).

12. Alliance of the 18th of November 1701 (x). 12. Barrier treaty, and for maintaining the Protestant succession, 29th of October 1709, and 30th of January 1713 (y).

VI. With Denmark.

(m) Treaties of amity and alliances: 1. Of the 20th of November 1465 (z). 2. Of the 19th of April 1621 (a). 3. Treaty of commerce of the 15th of September 1654 (b). 4. Of the 23d of February 1661 (c). 5. Of the 29th of November 1669 (d). 6. Alliance of the 16th of April 1727 (e).

(i) VII. With Sweden.

Treaties of amity and commerce: 1. Of the 11th of April 1654 (f), 2. Of the 21st of October 1661 (g). 3. Of the 16th of February 1666 (h). Alliances: 4. Of

(u) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. II. p. 282.

(x) Roussier, Supplem. Tom. II. P. II. p. 11.

(y) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 243 & 322.

(z) Rymer, Tom. V. P. II. p. 134. Du Mont, Tom. III. P. I. p. 584.

(a) Rymer, Tom. VII. P. III. p. 203. Du Mont, Tom. V. P. II. p. 391.

(b) Du Mont, Tom. VI. P. II. p. 92.

(c) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 346.

(d) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 126. Voyez aussi Mably, Tom. II. ch. xii. p. 368.

(e) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 144.

(f) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 80.

(g) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 384.

(h) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. III. p. 83.

the

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

the 23d of January 1668 (i). 5. Of the 1st of February 1720 (k).

VIII. With Russia.

Treaty of commerce : 1. Of the 16th of June 1623 (l). 2. Of the 2d of December 1734 (m). Alliances : 3. Of the 11th of December 1742 (n). 4. Of the 30th of September 1755 (o).

IX. With Prussia.

Alliances : 1. Of the 3d of September 1725 (p). 2. Of the 18th of November 1742 (q). 3. Guarantee for Silesia of the 19th of September 1746 (r). 4. Alliance of the 16th of January 1756 (s).

X. With Savoy, now Sardinia.

Alliances : 1. Of the 20th of October 1690 (t). 2. Of the 13th of September 1743 (u).

(i) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. I. p. 69.

(k) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 18.

(l) Rymer, Tom. VII. P. IV. p. 71. Du Mont, Tom. V. P. II. p. 436.

(m) Roussiet, Supplem. 2ⁿ Corps Diplom. Tom. II. P. II. p. 495.

(n) Ibid. Recueil, Tom. XVIII. p. 51.

(o) See Tindal's Contin. of Rapin's Hist. Vol. XXI. (or IX.) p. 533.

(p) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 127.

(q) Roussiet Recueil, Tom. XVIII. p. 45.

(r) Roussiet Recueil, Tom. XIX. p. 445.

(s) See Tindal, Vol. XXI. (IX.) p. 544.

(t) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. II. p. 272.

(u) Roussiet Recueil, Tom. XVIII. p. 83.

XI. With

XI. With the Ottoman Port.

Treaty of commerce in September 1675 (x).

S E C T. LXXII.

The most famous English statesmen, who either by their wisdom or imprudence, their good or bad fortune, lived or died in honour or disgrace, were : under Henry VIII. cardinal Wolsey and the lord chancellor sir Thomas Moore ; under Edward VI. John Dudley, duke of Northumberland ; under queen Elizabeth, the earls of Leicester and Essex, William Cecil, lord Burleigh, and sir Francis Walsingham ; under James I. Robert Cecil, earl of Salisbury, Francis Bacon, viscount St. Alban's (61), George Villiers, duke of Buckingham ; under Charles I. Thomas Wentworth, earl of Strafford ; under Charles II. Edward Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Anthony Ashley Cooper, earl of Shaftsbury ; under queen Anne, the earls of Godolphin, Sunderland, and Oxford, and viscount Bolingbroke ; under George I. and George II. earl Stanhope, sir Robert Walpole, afterwards earl of Orford, and Henry Pelham, esquire.

Eminent
statesmen
and war-
riors.

(x) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. I. p. 298.

(61) The wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind.

This is the short and genuine character given by Pope of that celebrated person.

Personages who distinguished themselves as land or sea commanders were; under Edward III. his son, commonly called the Black Prince; under Henry V. and Henry VI. John Ruffel, earl of Bedford, Thomas Montacute, earl of Salisbury; under queen Elizabeth, Charles Howard, earl of Nottingham, sir Francis Drake, sir Walter Raleigh; in the civil wars, Oliver Cromwell, Robert Blake; under Charles II. George Monk, afterwards duke of Albemarle, Edward Montague, earl of Sandwich; under William III. Edward Ruffel, afterwards earl of Orford, sir George Rooke; under queen Anne, John Churchill, duke of Marlborough (62), sir Cloudesley Shovel, and sir John Leake; under George I. sir John Jennings, sir George Byng, afterwards viscount Torrington, sir Charles Wager; under George II. sir Chaloner Ogle, Edward Vernon, esquire, lord Anson, sir Peter Warren, Edward Boscawen, George Pococke.

(62) The hero not only of his nation, but of his age; whose glory was equal in the council and in the field. See Tindal, Vol. XIX. (or VII.) p. 451. This great man, (and it can scarce be said of any other general), "never besieged a town which he did not take, nor fought a battle which he did not win." Tindal, Vol. XV. p. 342.

S E C T. LXXIII.

The treaties between England and foreign powers, with other public instruments, are contained in Rymer's large collections (63). The English historians of the middle ages have been published by Jerome Commelin (64), sir Henry Saville (65), the celebrated Camden (66), sir Roger

Collections
of public
records and
historians,

(63) The London edition of this work consists of twenty folios. The first fifteen were published by Rymer between the years 1704 and 1713. To these, Mr. Sanderfon added the 16th and 17th. As only few copies were printed, George Holmes had a new edition printed, and enlarged it with the 18th, 19th, and 20th. But this edition being likewise small, and bearing a very high price, Mr. Neaulme, a bookseller at the Hague, set on foot a third edition, in ten volumes folio, with the following title: *Fœdera, Conventiones, Literæ, & cujuscunque generis Acta Publica inter Reges Angliæ & alios quosvis Imperatores, Reges, Pontifices, Principes vel Communitates, ab ineunte sæculo duodecimo, viz. ab anno 1101, ad nostra usque tempora (1654) habita, aut tractata, ex Autographis fideliter exscripta. Accurantibus Thoma Rymer & Roberto Sanderfon. Ad originales char-tas in Turri Londinensi denuo summa fide collata & emendata studio Georgii Holmes. Editio Tertia, Hagæ Comitum 1739—1745.* This edition is far preferable to that of London, being augmented with a French translation of the instruments, queen Mary's Latin letters, an account of the English constitution under queen Elizabeth, an historico-critical abstract of the whole collection, and, lastly, a complete Index.

(64) *Britannicarum Rerum Scriptores vetustiores & præcipui.* Heidelbergæ 1587, fol.

(65) *Anglicarum Rerum Scriptores post Bedam præcipui,* Londini 1596 f. & Francof. 1601. f.

(66) *Anglica, Normannica, Hibernica, & Cambrica, a veteribus scripta.* Francof. 1603. f.

Twisden and Mr. Selden (67), bishop Fell of Oxford (68), Mr. Gale (69), and Mr. Sparke (70).

Complete
histories,

From these sources several English and foreign writers have composed complete histories. Among which, those of Echard (71), Larrey (72), Rapin de Thoyras (73), with the English translation and continuation by Tindal (74), likewise

(67) *Historiæ Anglicanæ Scriptores decem. Londini 1752, 2 Tomi, f.*

(68) *Rerum Anglicarum Scriptorum. Tomus I. Oxon. 1684, f.* The death of the author prevented the publication of the other volumes.

(69) *Historiæ Britannicæ, Saxonicæ, Anglo-Danicæ Scriptores XX. Oxon. 1691, 2 Tomi, f.*

(70) *Historiæ Anglicanæ Scriptores varii e Codicib. MSS. nunc primum editi. Lond. 1723, f.* A list of all the several writings in these collections are to be found in *Buderi Biblioth. Hist. cap. XV. § 6. p. 572.*

(71) *History of England by Lawrence Echard, London 1717, 1718, 3 volumes, f.* A new edition of this work was published in one volume in 1720.

(72) *Histoire d'Angleterre, d'Ecosse, & d'Irlande, à Rotterdam 1707—1712, 4 Tomes, f.*

(73) *Histoire d'Angleterre, à la Haye 1724—1727, 10 Tomes, 4to.* This work, which ends at the Revolution in 1688, has been continued by several French writers, and a new edition of it published at Paris, in 1749, by Mr. St. Mark, in 16 volumes large quarto; a translation of this has been since published at Halle.

(74) The extraordinary reception of Rapin's History induced Mr. Tindal to set about a translation of it, which he has farther enriched in his notes with several amendments and considerable additions; after which, he proceeded to a continuation of the work, which, together with the translation, have been so well received, as to pass through several editions. The latest came out between 1757 and 1759, in 21 volumes large octavo.

Smollet (75) and Hume (76), are the latest (77).

An account of the several Revolutions in England has been published by father d'Orleans (78); and of the civil war of 1641 by the earl of Clarendon (79).

Among the Scotch historians are, Buchanan (80), Scot (81), and Maitland (82). Keating's History of Ireland is much

Scotch and
Irish histo-
rians.

(75) A complete History of England, London 1758, eight volumes large octavo. Though this be only an abridgment of Rapin and Tindal, it has already seen more than one edition.

(76) Mr. Hume first published the History of Great Britain, Vol. I. Edinb. 1754 Vol. II. Lond. 1757, 4to. beginning with the year 1603, and ending at the Revolution 1688; but he has since written, in four volumes, 4to. the History of England, from the earliest Times to the Death of Queen Elizabeth; and the whole work is published with this title, The History of England Complete. London 1763, six volumes, 4to.

(77) Among the principal books relating to the history of England, may likewise be reckoned the Parliamentary or Constitutional History of England, from the earliest Times to the Restoration of King Charles II. London 1763, 24 volumes large octavo.

(78) Histoire des Revolutions d'Angleterre depuis le Commencement de la Monarchie, a Paris 1693, & Amsterdam 1714. 3 Tomes, 12mo.

(79) The History of the Rebellion and Civil Wars in England, begun in the year 1641. Oxford 1704, three volumes, f. 1707, six volumes, 8vo. with two additional volumes. London 1721, 1724, 8vo. Vide Buderi Biblioth. Hist. cap. xv. § 16. p. 604.

(80) Rerum Scotticarum Historia Libris XX. descripta. The best edition is that in Rudiman's edition of Buchanan's Works, printed at Edinburgh 1721.

(81) The History of Scotland, from 3619 to 1726. Westminster 1727, f.

(82) The History and Antiquities of Scotland, from the earliest Account of Time to the Death of James I an. 1437,

estee -

esteemed (83); but abbé Mac Geoghegan is charged with a flagrant partiality for popery (84).

S E C T. LXXIV.

Writers on
the state of
Great Bri-
tain.

The most accurate writers on the state of Great Britain are, Smith (85), Chamberlayne (86), Wood (87), Miede (88), and several others (89).

by W. Maitland; and from that Period to the Accession of James VI. to the Crown of England, an. 1603, by another hand. Lond. 1757, 2 vols. f.

(83) The General History of Ireland, by J. Keating, translated from the original Irish into English, by Dermot Connor. Lond. 1723.

(84) Histoire d'Irlande ancienne & moderne tirée des Monumens les plus authentiques. Paris 1758, 1762, 2 Tomes, 4to.

(85) De Republica Anglorum, Libri III. quibus accesserunt chorographica illius descriptio aliique politici tractatus. Lugd. Bat. 1641, in 24mo.

(86) Magnæ Britanniae Notitia; or, the Present State of Great Britain, with diverse Remarks upon the ancient State thereof. London 1755, 8vo.

(87) Angliæ Notitia sive præsens Angliæ status succincte enucleatus. Accedit Historiæ Anglicæ Compendium. Oxon. 1686, 12mo.

(88) The Present State of Great Britain and Ireland, completed to the present Time, by Mr. Bolton. Lond. 1751.

(89) A New Present State of England. London 1750, 2 vols. 8vo. And, Tour through the whole Island of Great Britain, London 1755, 4 vols. 8vo.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF

EUROPE.

CHAP. VI.

Of the UNITED NETHERLANDS.

SECT. I.

NETHERLANDS is by some thought ^{Name.} to mean Nether-Germany (1), while others give this name a different derivation (2). The United Netherlands, which consist of the seven provinces of Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht,

(1) Cluverius, in his Geography, Lib. II. cap. xviii. calls the Netherlands, Germania Inferior. See likewise Merulas's Discourse on the Republic of Holland, which is subjoined to Grotius's book on the same subject, p. 69.

(2) These deduce it from the low situation of the Netherlands, as lying at the mouths of several rivers. Others affirm, that this country was called Netherland from the division made of the antient kingdom of Lorrain into Upper and Lower, the latter containing a great part of the Netherlands. Francopolita's Account of the antient Kingdom of Lorrain, p. 155.

1579.

Friesland, Overysfell, and Groningen (3), are so called from the union concluded between them at Utrecht in the year ^{1579.} 1759.

S E C T II.

Situation, limits, and extent.

These provinces, with the territories ceded to them from the Austrian Netherlands, lye between the 51st and 54th degree of north latitude : towards the north and west they are surrounded by the North Sea ; southward they confine on Austrian Flanders, Brabant, and the bishopric of Liege ; and eastward on Juliers and Cleves, Prussian and Austrian Guelderland, the bishopric of Munster, the county of Bentheim, and the principality of East Friesland. Their greatest length is about twenty-nine German miles, and the breadth twenty-two and a half.

S E C T. III.

Air and weather.

The air of these provinces is thick and damp ; the great exhalations of vapours in all parts, with frequent westerly winds, occasioning mists and rains. The north and easterly winds, on the other hand, make the winters so cold, that the canals and lakes and even the rivers are generally frozen.

(3) For the derivation of these several names, see Everard. Ottonis Notit. Rerum Publ. cap. vi. § 1.

This

UNITED NETHERLANDS.

339

This moisture and coldness of the air, together with the sudden alterations of weather, render the people, more particularly in Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Groningen, very subject to coughs and rheums; and tertian and quartan agues are very rife every where: but contagious distempers are seldom heard of; a happiness owing to the cold, and the winds keeping the air in continual agitation (*a*).

S E C T. IV.

The country is flat and level, except the ^{Hills} sand-banks along the sea, and some risings in Guelderland, Utrecht, and Overijssel: Holland is low and swampy, and, like the Zealand islands, intirely level.

S E C T. V.

The United Netherlands are watered by ^{Rivers} two large rivers, the Rhine and the Maese; the former, which directs its course from the duchy of Cleves, below Schenkenschanz, into Guelderland, separates there into two arms; the southern and largest is called the Waal, and falls into the Maese at Woudrichem;

(*a*) State and Constitution of the United Netherlands, cap. I. p. 17, 18. a German work.

the northern, which retains its name, divides itself into two branches, of which one, after joining the New Yffell, unites with the Old Yffell at Doesburg, and at Campen they empty themselves into the Zuider Sea; the other passes by Duurstede, under the name of Rheinswyk, and again divides itself into two arms, the larger of which is called the Lek, and falls into the Maese; the lesser, which is but shallow, keeps its name, and, after passing through Utrecht, Woerden, and Leyden, loses itself in the sand-hills near Catwyk. Antiently it issued here into the North Sea; but this outlet has been choaked up for many centuries.

The Maese, which, after passing by Maestricht, and pervading Guelderland, receives the Waal at Lovestein in Holland, and there acquires the name of the Merve. At Dort it divides itself into two arms, the right of which runs on to Rotterdam, and is there again called the Máese; the left is called the Old Maese: both again unite opposite to Vlaerdingen, and, under the name of Maese, empty themselves into the sea at the Briel (*b*).

(*b*) See the before-mentioned State of the United Netherlands, cap. I. p. 14.

UNITED NETHERLANDS.

341

Besides these, and several smaller rivers, there are in these provinces large pieces of water; the principal of which is the Zuider Sea, a large gulph or lake, caused by an irruption of the North Sea betwixt Holland, Utrecht, Guelderland, Overijssel, and Groningen. In Holland is likewise the Haarlemer-Meer, or Harlem Lake (4), and the Wye, which divides this province into South and North Holland: they have besides every where numberless canals, which are exceeding convenient for communication and trade (5). The sea, with the rivers and other waters, are, indeed, of great advantage to the United Netherlands, for their domestic and foreign trade; but, at the same time, they are the most dangerous enemies, on account of inundations; from which they have no other means of securing themselves but by dykes and dams, at a prodigious expence, and these too often fail (6).

(4) A resolution was taken some years ago to drain this lake, in the same manner as the Beemster and Purmer in North Holland; but hitherto this scheme, though manifestly of great benefit, has not been taken in hand, possibly on account of its vast expence.

(5) On these canals, Treckschuits, or boats drawn by horses, go every day from town to town at fixed hours.

(6) The labour and expence of these dams, which are indeed astonishing, and particularly the sea-dams in West Friesland, drew from Mr. Archibald Pitcairn, a Scotch gentleman, the following encomium:

S E C T. VI.

Fertility.

The soil of the United Provinces, generally speaking, is not fruitful, as not producing several of the necessaries of life. In the animal kingdom it chiefly abounds in horned cattle, multitudes of which are bred in their fine and rich pastures, particularly those of Holland. The cattle are likewise very large; their butter and cheese, besides a plentiful home consumption, make likewise considerable articles of exportation. The sheep yield a wool little inferior to that of Spain (7). Some parts, likewise, afford

*Tellurem fecere Dei, sua littora Belgæ,
Immensæque patet molis uterque labor.
Di vacuo sparsas glomerarunt æthere terras,
Nil ubi quod cœptis posset obesse fuit.
At Belgis maria & terræ natura que rerum
Obstitit, obstantes hi domuere Deos.*

The keeping of these dykes in repair is said to cost as much as would maintain 40,000 regular forces. Janison *Etat present des Provinces Unies*, Tom. I. ch. i. p. 8, 9. Within these hundred years the sea dams in West Friesland, being the largest, used to be secured with beams and piles; but about thirty years ago, it was discovered that a kind of worms ate into these piles, so that they fell down on a very slight shock of the water, and the fenceless dams were exposed to the manifest danger of a breach: thus a small contemptible insect threatened the whole country with utter destruction. Since 1732, the dykes have been secured with large stones, which seem to have strengthened them so effectually as to answer the end proposed. See *Vaderl. Hist. Deel. XIX. B. LXXIII. § 24. B. XCI. XCII.*

(7) But no great quantities are bred, though, according to a proposal made some years ago, a million of them might be maintained only in the province of Holland.

very good draught and saddle-horses. Game, excepting in Guelderland and Overijssel, is very scarce; but they have plenty of water and sea-fowl; besides which, the sea with the many other pieces of water supply them with fish in very great abundance.

Most of the provinces have little timber or fuel wood: but for the latter they have a good substitute in turf, of which that in Holland is the best. They are far from producing a sufficiency of grain for the subsistence of the inhabitants, though Zealand yields excellent wheat and great quantities of wood.

Nothing of the mineral kind is found, in these provinces, except iron in Zutphen; some places are even so destitute of spring-water, that the rain is carefully saved in cisterns.

Though nature has but very scantily provided these countries with necessaries, and totally denied some, this want is so well made up by trade and the industry of the inhabitants, that, in few states, whatever belongs to the necessity or pleasure of life, is to be had in such plenty and goodness as in these countries.

S E C T. VII.

Hence, these provinces, but particularly Holland, are full of large and beautiful

Excellent
improvement of the
country.

tiful cities, towns, and villages; the eye on all sides meets elegant seats and gardens. Every spot yields a charming prospect, and the roads, the borders of the canals, the walks, and the streets of the cities and towns, are adorned with variety of lofty trees; and all this is the produce of the industry and skill of the inhabitants, who, of a spot which left to itself would have been buried in the sea, have now made an earthly paradise.

S E C T. VIII.

Countries
which com-
pose the
state of the
United Ne-
therlands.

The United Netherlands consist of seven provinces, 1. Guelderland, the larger part of the ancient duchy of Guelderland, to which likewise belongs the county of Zutphen; 2. Holland, the northern part of which is called West Friezland; 3. Zeeland, which consists of several islands; 4. Utrecht, formerly an archbishopric; 5. Friezland; 6. Over-Yffel, which formerly belonged to the archbishopric of Utrecht; 7. Groningen, consisting of the city of that name, and the Ommelands, frequently expressed by the name of Stadt and Land. Besides these seven provinces, the body of the United Provinces includes likewise the Liberty of Drente, though

though at first not admitted into the Union of Utrecht.

S E C T. IX.

The United Provinces, in the long war with Spain, made several conquests in the Spanish Netherlands, now the Austrian, and which were given up to them at the treaty of Munster in 1648 (*c*), namely, 1. In Brabant, the district of Hertogenbosch, the town of Grave, and the barony of Ruik, the town and barony of Breda, the town and marquissate of Bergen-op-Zoom, the city of Maastricht, and the county of Vroenhove; 2. In the duchy of Limburg, that part of the country over the Maese, which consists of part of the counties of Valkenburg and Dalem, and the lordship of Hertogenrade; and 3. In Flanders, the district of Sluis, Hulst, Axel, and Assenede. The barrier treaty (*d*) concluded with the emperor Charles VI. in 1715, put them in possession of the town of Venlo, and Fort Stevens-Waart, in the upper part of Guelderland. All these countries and places are, collectively, called the Generality's land,

Depend-
cies.
1. In Eu-
rope.

(*c*) Article III. Du Mont, Tom. VI. P. II. p. 430.

(*d*) Article XVIII. Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 46.

being

being under the common sovereignty of the States-General (e).

II. In the
East Indies.

As the state of the United Netherlands chiefly depends on its shipping and maritime commerce, its dominion has likewise been considerably extended thereby in the other three parts of the world; but particularly such conquests have been made by its East India company, as would jointly form a powerful state, and these it holds under the protection and sovereignty of the States-General. The capital of their Indian possessions is Batavia (f), on the island of Java, which it keeps in awe by means of several forts (8).

To their East India company likewise belongs the sea coast all round the island of Ceylon, for several miles up the country, and some towns and forts (9), besides several of the Molucca or Spice-Islands, as

(e) A complete description of these countries may be seen in Janison, *Etat Present de la Republique des Provinces Unies*, Tom. II.

(f) See a description of them in the *History of the Dutch East India Company*, in the *Mod. Univers. Hist.* Vol. X. P. 424. 425.

(8) Its principal commodities are cotton, rice, ginger, pepper, and coffee.

(9) These are Columbo, Negombo, Maturá, Punte Gale, Jainapatnam, Trinkenemale, Hammen, Kiel. Ceylon yields the best cinnamon in the universe.

Am-

Amboyna (10), Banda (11), Ternate, Tidor, Motir, Makian, and Batfian (12).

To the company are likewise subject Macassar on the island of Celebes, Malacca, the capital of the peninsula of that name, several places and forts on the coast of Malabar (13) and Coromandel (14), and some on the island of Sumatra.

In Africa the East India company is possessed of the Cape of Good Hope, where it has a large and splendid settlement, and very convenient for supplying their ships, both going and coming, with all kinds of refreshments (15). III. In Africa.

Fort St. George del Mina, and Moure, commonly called Fort Nassau, in Guinea,

(10) These, and several other small adjacent islands, furnish great quantities of cloves.

(11) To this belong the smaller islands of Lontor, Nera, Pulloway, Pullaron, &c. These yield plenty of nutmegs and mace, of the best.

(12) These islands were formerly celebrated for cloves, nutmegs, and mace; but the Dutch East India company, in a treaty with the king of Ternate and other sovereigns of the Moluccas, obtained that all the clove and nutmeg-trees should be destroyed; Amboyna and Banda supplying the company with more cloves, nutmegs, and mace, than it wanted.

(13) Cochin, Calichut, Cananor, Cranganor, Coulang.

(14) Negapatnam, Nisipatnam or Petapoli, Tegopatnam, Sadraspatnam, Musilipatnam, Dachiron, Bimilipatnam, Paleakate.

(15) The Cape of Good Hope comprehends a large fertile tract, well cultivated, and producing the best vegetables of all the four parts of the world. It also yields an exquisite wine, known by the name of Cape Wine. See State of the United Netherlands, chap. xiii. p. 619.

along

along the Gold Coast, with some other places, belong to the West India company (16).

IV. In America.

It is also proprietor of several tracts in America, as the islands of Curassao and St. Eustatia; likewise the colonies of Isequebo and a part of Surinam (17), which last belongs to Guiana. In this country is likewise Berbice, a colony founded by some Dutch merchants (18).

S E C T. X.

Short history of the United Netherlands.

The provinces called the Netherlands, and which not long since were seventeen, belonged anciently to Gaul and Germany; and, on the Romans extending their conquests in these countries, came under their dominion: but the Franks erecting their monarchy, the Netherlands made a part of it; and after its dissolution, they submitted to Germany, except Flanders and Artois, which remained under the Franks or French.

(16) Which carries on a very considerable trade for ivory, gold, and negroes.

(17) One-third of Surinam is in the hands of the West India company; the two other parts belong to the city of Amsterdam, and a private gentleman of the name of Aarsens.

(18) The fate of this colony may be seen in the State of the United Netherlands, cap. xvi. p. 714, 715.

These

These several provinces, partly by marriage and inheritance, partly by treaty, in process of time, devolved upon the younger house of Burgundy, the male issue of which failing in duke Charles the Bold ; 1477. and his only daughter, Mary, marrying the then archduke, and afterwards emperor Maximilian I. they fell to the house 1478. of Austria ; and lastly, by his grandson, Charles V. emperor and king of Spain, they came to be a part of the Spanish dominions. Charles, after a successful war, 1516. obliged Francis, king of France, at the treaty of Madrid, to resign his sovereignty over 1526. Flanders and Artois. The same active prince added several provinces to the Netherlands, and, by a settled contribution, which they were to pay towards the charges 1548. of the empire, united them to Germany, under the name of the Circle of Burgundy ; at the same time, separating them, in some measure, from the empire, by exempting them from its jurisdiction.

All the several provinces which compose the Netherlands, have their particular rights and privileges, many of which are very considerable. Charles V. indeed, had, on many occasions, not shewn the greatest regard to them ; but his son, Philip II. aimed at a total abolition of them, and an arbitrary sway.

sway. The new doctrines of the Reformation having spread in the Netherlands, the professors of it were violently persecuted under Charles V. and not a few suffered death. Philip II. who had an ardent zeal for his religion, determined, as the best means for supporting it, and suppressing all heresy, to introduce the inquisition into the Netherlands. This kindled a general discontent, and occasioned an association of a great part of the nobility of the country, who petitioned that the severe proceedings against those who were called heretics might be discontinued; but the answer was by no means pleasing (19). This immediately produced very turbulent commotions, and the pulling down of images almost in every place throughout the Netherlands. In consequence of these tumults, Philip II. sent the duke of Alva with an army to extirpate heresy, and bring the Netherlanders under the yoke of an arbitrary power.

(19) The presenting this petition gave rise to the name of Geuses, i. e. Beggars; by which were afterwards distinguished all anti-catholics, or those who had taken arms against the Spaniards. On the other hand, several lampoons and other copies of verses were made on the duke of Alva and the occurrences of the times; which afterwards were printed, under the title of, *Het Guese Liedboek*; The Geuses Song Book. The authors and singers of these songs were, by order of the duke of Alva, punished with death. See General History of the United Provinces, written in German, Vol. III. p. 68 and 115.

The

The duke began with severely punishing all concerned in the late disturbances, persecuting the heretics, and introducing several heavy imposts, till then quite unknown in these countries (20). These were the immediate transactions which inflamed the Netherlanders to despair, and brought on an almost universal insurrection.

William, count of Nassau, and prince of Orange, was the first who took up arms in defence of the spiritual and temporal liberties of the Netherlanders, though, in the beginning, with little success. The Water-Geuses, however, as they were called, made themselves masters of the Briel; and this small commencement laid the foundation of the state of the United Netherlands, now flourishing in freedom, opulence, and glory. For, on this success, many towns in Holland, Zealand, Overijssel, and Guelderland, turned their backs on Spain, and declared for the prince. The duke of Alva endeavoured to reduce those towns to submission, and having mastered Naarden and Haarlem, they felt the most severe effects of Spanish rage

(20) These taxes were, 1. The hundredth penny of a person's whole substance; 2. Of moveables; and 3. The twentieth on immoveables, payable at every sale of them. See General History of the United Provinces, written in German, Vol. III. p. 133.

and

1576.

and inhumanity. But so far from restoring affairs, which he had embroiled by his rigour, the two provinces of Holland and Zealand entered into a league against the Spaniards, and made a tender to the prince of Orange of the government whilst the war should continue. The Spanish soldiery having, about this time, for want of pay, plundered Antwerp and other places, the states of Brabant, Flanders, Artois, Hainault, Namur, Utrecht, and Muhlins, engaged themselves with the prince of Orange and the states of Holland and Zealand, to

1577.

assist one another, and drive out the Spanish forces; and this convention was ratified by the Perpetual Edict. But a proper harmony was wanting among the confederated provinces, on account of the difference of religion; and the catholic provinces, in their unseasonable apprehensions for their religion, formed a particular league, and soon after went over again to the Spaniards.

1579.

On the other hand, the prince of Orange, by his incessant endeavours, brought about the Union of Utrecht between the seven provinces of Guelderland, Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Friesland, Overijssel, and Groningen, in which the protestant religion had already gained the ascendant.

1581.

Soon after, Philip II. king of Spain, was,
by

by a formal manifesto, solemnly declared to be deprived of all sovereignty and power over those United Provinces. To this union likewise acceded Ghent and Antwerp, with other cities in Flanders and Brabant. But the confederates, finding themselves too weak to make head against the great power of the Spaniards, judged it adviseable to secure the assistance of a foreign potentate, and chose for their sovereign Francis Hercules, duke of Anjou, brother to Henry III. king of France. He was solemnly installed duke of Brabant, and received the homages^{1582.} of most of the provinces, exclusive of Holland, Utrecht and Zealand, which would not consent. The duke, soon dissatisfied with the very limited power allowed him by the states of the Netherlands, was for enlarging it by means of his soldiery; but the^{1583.} attempt miscarrying, his sovereignty over the Netherlands soon came to a period.

The states of Holland and Zealand, who had invested the prince of Orange with the government whilst the war should last, were for transferring to him the limited sovereignty of their provinces, under the title of count; but before this could be perfectly settled, he was murdered at Delft.^{1584.}

This event threw the United Provinces into great trouble and perplexity, by reason

1585.

of the many difficulties they had to struggle with, in defending themselves against the Spaniards ; so that they offered the sovereignty over them to Henry III. king of France, and afterwards to Elizabeth, queen of England ; but both declined the overture. The latter, however, entered into an alliance with them, engaging to furnish them with succours ; and accordingly sent over the earl of Leicester, with the stipulated number of troops. The states of the United Provinces immediately appointed him governor in chief, and with very great power ; but his conduct favouring more of despotic views, than a regard to the public good, great dissensions soon broke out between him and the states, and he soon resigned his government.

1587.

From this time the states of each particular province, took the government into their own hands, and the war against the Spaniards was carried on with no less success, than courage and conduct, under prince Maurice, second son to the late prince William of Orange: these advantages gave occasion to a twelve years truce, the preliminary to which was, that Spain should acknowledge the United Provinces a free state.

1609.

On

On the expiration of the armistice, the war was renewed; in which the United Provinces, (prince Frederic Henry of Orange, Maurice's brother, succeeding him in the command of the forces), not only defended their own territories, but made several conquests in Brabant and Flanders, and other parts of the Spanish Netherlands. After a war of fourscore years, Spain found itself obliged, at the peace of Munster, to ratify its former concession, and declare the United Provinces free and independent states.

During this long war, they had extended their trade and commerce to the East and West Indies; and by these successes acquired great riches, power, and consideration.

But this prosperity drew on them the jealousy and enmity of the republic of England; which, as they had rejected its offer of an absolute union or coalition, as it was termed, sought, and was not long in finding, a pretence to quarrel with them. Whatever vigour and resolution the states manifested in this war, their successes were so little answerable, that they chose to terminate it by a disadvantageous peace.

The dispute with the Portuguese, for having dispossessed the West India company of Brazil, soon broke out into an open war,

1658.

and almost, at the same time, the states saw themselves obliged to take part in the disturbances in the North; this they did effectually; for, by their assistance, Denmark was preserved from the ruin with which Sweden threatened it, and thus they maintained the ballance of the North.

1654.

Charles II. king of England, afterwards entering into an unjust war with them, they sent such fleets to sea, that he readily came into the peace of Breda, without having any thing to boast of. The triple alliance which soon after followed between them, England and Sweden, prevented the Spanish Netherlands, which had been attacked by France, from falling entirely into the hands of that power; and an honourable end was likewise put to the disputes with Portugal. This was the period when the power, consideration, and glory of the republic were in their zenith.

1667.

1668.

1669.

This glorious scene, however, was soon overcast with very black clouds. Lewis XIV. extremely incensed that his designs on the Spanish Netherlands had been baffled by the intervention of the States, was impatient to take his revenge. He likewise found means to draw England and Sweden from the triple alliance; and thereupon, in conjunction with Charles II. made war on them

1670.

1672.

by

by sea and land. This war suddenly brought the state to the brink of destruction; the French, with their German allies, the elector of Cologne, and bishop of Munster, making themselves, in the very first campaign, masters of three provinces, Guelderland, Utrecht, and Overysse. But, amidst this complicated adversity, William III. prince of Orange, being raised to the stadtholdership, saved the state by his fortitude and prudence, and by the powerful alliances which he formed against France; so that, at the peace of Nimeguen, which closed this war, the United Provinces were no losers. 1678.

James II. king of England, making large strides towards bringing in popery and arbitrary power into his dominions, great numbers of the English nobility and gentry 1688. invited over the prince of Orange; and the States furnished him with a fleet and army. All king James's pernicious designs were defeated, the civil and ecclesiastical constitution of England preserved, and the prince of Orange raised to the British throne, by the title of William III. This revolution occasioning a fresh war with France, the States maintained it with great firmness and vigour, though not to their advantage, and it terminated in the peace of Ryswic. 1697.

1700.

The demise of Charles II. king of Spain, and his will, by which he appointed Philip duke of Anjou, the king of France's second grandson, his successor, kindled a new and general war, which the States, jointly with England, in vain endeavoured to prevent by two partition treaties, as they were called. They now saw themselves obliged, out of regard to their own security, and the ballance of Europe, to embark in it; and they carried it on with great zeal, immense expedition, and the most glorious success: but the peace of Utrecht, too precipitately clapped up by the queen of Great Britain, deprived them of most of the advantages, which they might reasonably have expected.

1713.

The two last wars having extremely weakened the State, besides the load of a prodigious debt; the States General kept themselves clear from the succeeding wars, and no farther interfered in the general affairs of Europe, than their own preservation and safety required. They, however, pursuant to their engagements with the emperor Charles VI. on his demise assisted his daughter and heiress, Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, and Bohemia, for which France invaded their generality-lands, and over-ran a great part of them; but all were restored at the peace of

1731.

1742.

1747.

1748.

Aix-

Aix-la-Chapelle. In the last war between ¹⁷⁵⁵ France and Great Britain, the States regulated their conduct by their circumstances, and, to the great advantage of their trade, observed a perfect neutrality.

S E C T. XI.

The inhabitants of the United Netherlands appear by their language, to be of German origin. The Batavians, who, in Julius Cæsar's time, inhabited the country between the two arms of the Rhine, not far from its issue into the sea, called the island of the Batavians, and which contains part of the present countries of Gueldenland, Holland, and Utrecht, were descendants of the Batti, who dwelt along the Eder, in Hefia, and Waldec. Afterwards the Frisi, settled in the present country of Friezland, Groningen, West Friezland, and a part of Holland (*b*). On the fall of the Roman empire, the Frisi enlarged their limits; but the country has been successively invaded by other nations, as the Franks, the Salii, the Chamaveri, the Saxons, the Warni, the Suevi, and Normans; and of these several

Origin of
the inhabi-
tants of the
United Ne-
therlands.

(*b*) General History of the United Netherlands, Vol. I.
P. 4, 5, 8, 9, 19, 20.

stocks the present inhabitants are the branches (1).

S E C T. XII.

Character.

From the diversity of their descent, it may be conceived, that there must be no little difference between their lives and manners; yet is it generally observed, that the inhabitants of the several United Provinces have a great affinity both in body and mind. They are well made and robust, of a grave and reserved deportment, talk little, thinking before they speak. This natural phlegm preserves them from precipitancy, and violent passions; and such composure not only qualifies them for trade, but likewise for the most important affairs of state, in which they have always shewn great prudence and sagacity. They are distinguished for laboriousness and industry, (21) moderation and œconomy (22): they

(1) Dissertation on the Nations which antiently inhabited the Country of the present United Netherlands, in the Haaerlem Transactions, Vol. VI.

(21) *Otium plus quam Attica severitate multaverunt. Pueri in Tyrocinia distributi publico, si necesse est, sumptu: virgines ad filum lanamque eruditæ: omnem ætatem idoneus sudor exercet, et a puero familiaris labor ignotam segnitiam, vel ipsa consuetudine nescit amare. Barclaius in Icon. Animor. Cap. V. p. 415.*

(22) These virtues, however, are not so general at present, luxury increasing with wealth; and Grotius, even in his time, complained, "That the rich gave into the profuse way of living of foreigners; and that the less able

are

are likewise candid and honest (23), very compassionate and kind towards the poor and distressed, and, when in their power, will not suffer the weaker to be oppressed. Their love of freedom gloriously displayed itself in the long war which they sustained against Spain, at that time the most formidable power in Europe. Their firmness and intrepidity in that contest for liberty, gained them the reputation of very brave and courageous soldiers; though some will have it, that they make better sailors than landmen.

The faults chiefly laid to their charge, are avarice and penuriousness: however, these do not shew themselves in any bad or scandalous effects, but rather by industry and moderation, preferring those means of acquiring wealth, to any iniquitous or violent practices (k). Formerly they passed for excessive drunkards, but this vice at present prevails only among the populace (24). The

imitated them in splendor, from a shame of being reckoned poor." See his *Annal. de Reb. Belg. Lib V.*

(23) They neither deceive, nor suffer themselves to be deceived. *Ingenium populi neque capax neque patiens fraudum. Ea fide qua sunt digni, facile alios æstimant, sed decepta simplicitas intractabili odio perfidiam lædentium fugit.* Barclaius in *Icon Animor.* Cap. V. p. 415.

(k) Temple's *Observations on the United Provinces*, Chap. IV. p. 167.

(24) This delight in drinking, Barclay imputes to a custom derived from their neighbours the Germans; and
women

women are handsome, very fair and well shaped; but some think they want a proper liveliness, and that their carriage is starched, except among the persons of rank, who imitate the French ladies. They bear a better character for virtue and modesty, than the fair sex in some other nations. In their domestic œconomy they observe the strictest order and frugality; and their delicate neatness (25) in their houses is admired by all strangers, as indeed they do not grudge making themselves slaves to that nicety (l). But, on the other hand, they are unlimited monarchs within doors, and govern with independent power, to which many husbands patiently submit. Yet, according to a certain writer, this complaisance is no more than they deserve for their tenderness and fidelity; and the sovereignty which the husband resigns to them, is a just recompence for their prudence and virtue (m).

partly to their manner of bringing up their children. Icon. Animor. Cap. V. p. 414. Sir William Temple holds strong liquors to be beneficial, not only to the health, but the intellects of the inhabitants. Observations, Chap IV. p. 174.

(25) Some look upon this nicety to be over-doing things; but in some respects it is very necessary. La Barre p. I. Lettr. XXVI. and Lettres Hollandoises, Tom. I. No. XXII. &c.

(l) Janisson, Tom. I. ch. I.

(m) Beaumarchais, P. II. Letter XXV.

S E C T. XIII.

The Netherland, or Dutch language, is ^{Language.} a dialect of the German, and agrees most with that of Lower Saxony (26). It is very copious; and its many compound words fit it for expressing things clearly and properly. It is spoken differently in all the provinces, and even in many single places. The most different dialect from it, is that of Friesland (27). The best is spoken in Holland, where, indeed, the most pains have been taken in its refinement; especially since the learned have begun to treat of the sciences in their native language.

S E C T. XIV.

The United Provinces, considering their ^{Number of} small extent, and the indifferent quality of ^{inhabitants.} the soil, are very populous, which must be attributed to their great trade, their many manufactures, and their fishery, which procure employment and subsistence to vast

(26) Goropius Becanus seriously affirms, and is for maintaining, that the language of the Netherlands is the oldest, and was the fountain of all others; for which Lipsius banters him to some purpose. Vid. Cent. III. Epist. 44. ad Belgas, in ejus operib. Tom. II. p. 986, 987.

(27) The Friesland rusticks, who still speak the old tongue, are not understood, either by other Netherlands, or by the Germans, or any other European people. Vid. Suffrid. Petrus de Frisior. Antiquit. & Orig. Lib. I. cap. XIV. p. 118.

numbers.

numbers. The inhabitants are computed at two millions and one third; while others make them two millions and a half, reckoning a million in the province of Holland alone (n); which thus contains nearly as many souls as all the other six together (28.)

S E C T. XV.

Nobility.

The first class of the inhabitants is the nobility, which have always been greatly respected, and still are, especially in the provinces of Guelderland, Friesland, and Overijssel, where they have likewise a great share of the government. Many of the most ancient and principal noble families are now extinguished (29), and the vacancies not filled up; as neither the States General of the United Provinces, nor the provinces separately, confer ranks and nobility. There are, however, not a few families which have been made counts or barons by the emperor, or other foreign powers, without

(n) Susmilch's Display of the Divine Economy, Vol. II. cap. XX. § 284.

(28) The causes of this population are the many large cities, and the flourishing state of their manufactures; yet in the former century, the number of inhabitants in the province of Holland, was computed at no less than two millions four hundred thousand souls. But this computation must undoubtedly exceed.

(29) As the counts of Buren, Leerdam, Vianen, Ruilenburg, Bronkhorst, the lords of Brederode.

any

any exception taken at their bearing such new title (30). But it does not admit them to the privileges belonging to the ancient nobility of the country (31).

Besides the nobility, there are in the United Provinces, and particularly in Holland, other respectable families, which may be compared to the German *Patricii*; namely, those which have, from time immemorial, filled the high offices in the cities; and who, to this day, are elected preferably to others (o). These, for the most part, are persons of wealth, living creditably on the interest of their capitals, and the rents of their estates; on which

(30) Sane Comitum & Baronum tanta apud nos seges est, ut ipsa copia obruamur, & tamen æquo animo ferimus hæc lascivientis fortunæ ludibria. Cornel. Van. Bynkerhoek *Quæst. jar. Publ. Lib. XI. cap. XXV. § 9. in operib. ejus Tom. II. p. 260.* In the year 1656 a motion was made in the council of state, That no person should accept of, and bear, any title of honour from a foreign prince, without consent of the States; but no resolution was passed on it.

(31) It is at least the custom in Holland. *Ordines Hollandiæ, 11 Dec. 1660, decreverunt, & eodem die edixerunt, ne nobilitas ab externis principibus impetrata quidquam in Hollandia prædesset, vel ad venationem, vel ad aliud quodcunque jus. Summam rationem habet, ut nobiles diplomatici—Sollicite distinguantur a nobilibus indigenis, & ne illi admittantur ad administrationem republicæ ullasve alias dignitates, quæ nobilibus indigenis competunt. Si admitterentur, non solum emerent, ut nunc fere magna insania emunt, qui ab externis principibus diplomaticas nobilitates obtinent iisque, sæpe, magno suo dedecore, superbiunt. Bynherhoek.*

(o) Beaumarchais, *Lettres*. XXIII. P. 138.

account,

account, they are, in Holland, distinguished by the name of Renteniers (*p*).

S E C T. XVI.

Form of government.

The United Netherlands are a political body of united people, composed of the seven provinces of Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Overijssel, and Groningen; and formed by the union concluded at Utrecht on the 23d of January, 1579 (32), which thus was their first and principal tye and cement: its chief contents are comprized in the following articles.

I. The said provinces unite themselves by a perpetual alliance, as if they were but one province, yet without any diminution of the particular liberties, privileges, and laudable customs of each particular province and town.

II. To the support of which they mutually engage themselves against all the violence and hostilities of Spain, or any other enemy, though only one single province, town, or member, should be attacked.

(*p*) Temple's Observations, ch. iv.

(32) All the seven provinces and their members did not accede to the union on that day. It was not till some time after, that the nobility and the towns of several provinces incorporated themselves. See Gen. Hist of the United Netherlands, Vol. III. p. 341.

III.

III. All matters relating to war, peace and taxes, are to be determined by general consent; yet, in all other concerns of the union, a majority of votes shall suffice.

IV. No particular province, city, town, or member, shall enter into an alliance with any other state, without the consent of the United Provinces.

V. The state of religion shall be left to the pleasure and disposition of each particular province.

VI. Disputes between distinct provinces shall be decided by the other provinces; but differences among all the seven provinces shall be referred to the stadtholder for the time being.

VII. The United Provinces are, on a summons, to make their appearance at Utrecht, there to consult about the general concerns; and the absentees are to conform to the resolutions of the assembly.

VIII. The explanation of any obscure passages in the act of confederacy, shall be referred to the assembly of the confederates; and, in case of their not agreeing, to the stadtholder.

IX. No addition to, or alteration of the articles of the confederacy, to take place,
but

but by the general consent of the confederates (*q*).

S E C T. XVII.

Assembly of
the States
General.

The affairs of this body, particularly in its infancy, requiring many deliberations, the states of the United Provinces were obliged to hold frequent meetings. These meetings were first held at Utrecht, but afterwards in several other cities, as Middleburg, Delft, and lastly, at the Hague. They used to break up on having dispatched the affairs for which they had been called together; but in 1593, they were made perpetual, and the Hague has always been the place of their residence (*r*). This assembly is termed the States General, and consists of deputies of the seven United Provinces, invested with the administration of public affairs. The number of the deputies is not limited, every province sending as many as it thinks fit, (33),

(*q*) See the union of Utrecht, in Du Mont's Corps Diplom. Tom. V. P. I. p. 322. See also General History of the United Netherlands.

(*r*) General Hist. of the United Netherlands, Vol. IV. p. 35, and State of the United Netherlands, chap. VIII.

(33) The number of the Guelderland deputies is 19; of those of Holland 12 or 13; of Zealand 7; of Utrecht 3; of Friesland 5; of Overijssel 5; and of Groningen 6; in the whole 57 or 58; but some being generally absent, the usual number is about 50. The deputies hold their office only for a certain time, except a few for life. State of the United Netherlands, p. 319.

but altogether have but one vote, there being no more votes than provinces, namely, seven (*s*).

The assembly is held in a spacious and splendid room, within the palace of the old counts of Holland: Guelderland has the precedence, the other provinces following in the order above-mentioned (*t*). The deputies meet every day throughout the whole year, and, occasionally, even on Sundays. The presidentship changes alternately every Sunday at midnight, according to the rank of their provinces; and the president is always the principal person among the deputies of a province (*u*), consequently one of the nobility (34). The majority of votes determines the resolutions, except in cases requiring unanimity (35).

From the collective body of the deputies are chosen several committees for particular branches; as foreign affairs, the finances,

(*s*) State of the United Netherlands, chap. viii.

(*t*) Ibid. chap. viii.

(*u*) Ibid. p. 330, &c.

(34) The superiority among the states of a particular province belongs to the nobility, except in Groningen, where the deputies of the city of that name precede those of the Ommelans or environs.

(35) Such as war and peace, new levies of troops, imposts, alliances. There are, however, several instances, where no regard has been paid to the negative of a single province. Bynkershoek *Quæst. Jus. Publ. lib. I. cap. xxiii.* Tom. II. p. 203.

navy, &c. and all these committees consist of nine members, a deputy from each province, the grand pensionary of Holland, and the secretary to the States General, who, on a report from the committee, proceed to a resolution (x).

The States General are a very respectable body, and invested with regal prerogatives; war is carried on, and peace concluded in their name; they send and receive ambassadors (36); to them belongs the sovereignty over the generality-lands, and likewise over those of the East and West India companies in the other parts of the world (37); not in virtue of any power of their own, but that committed to them by the several provinces which they represent. Although this assembly may not improperly be termed the supreme senate, or council of the state, yet the deputies or members of it are, and continue the subjects and servants of

(x) Jannisson, Tom. I. ch. ii. p. 82.

(36) The province of Holland has the privilege of proposing to the assembly of the States General the ambassador to the court of France, and Zealand to that of Great Britain. State of the United Netherlands, chap. viii. With regard to foreign ambassadors it is remarkable, that the state acknowledges none of its subjects as ambassadors, or secretaries of embassies; but as to their being agents, or consuls, that is permitted. Jannison, Tom. I. ch. ii.

(37) Concerning these, and other powers, among which may be reckoned the disposal of many employments, see Jannison, Tom. I. ch. ii.

their several provinces, from which they receive their credentials (38): to these they must strictly conform, and in weighty affairs, particularly those which are determinable only by an unanimous vote, they must consult the sentiments of their respective provinces before they give their vote (39). Any failure in this essential point, subjects them to be called to account; and dearly would they suffer for their presumption (*y*). Pursuant to a general resolution of 1625, all military persons, or who hold posts or employments under foreign princes, are incapable of being deputies to the assembly of the States General; the very stadtholder himself is excluded from that assembly, unless on his having a proposal to lay before them (*z*).

(38) They have also pecuniary allowances; those of Holland four guilders per diem, and those of other provinces six. State of the United Netherlands, chap. viii. § 319.

(39) These make their proceedings, in such cases, very slow, especially when one or more foreign ministers whom it concerns, make use of the usual means to practise on the provinces for defeating a negotiation. The States General, however, have, in urgent exigencies, sometimes broke through this rule, as in the triple alliance concluded with England and Sweden in 1668; in which, however, several of the deputies risked their heads, if it had been disapproved by their provinces. Temple's Observations, ch. ii.

(*y*) State of the United Netherlands, ch. viii. p. 315.

(*z*) Ibid. p. 370.

S E C T. XVIII.

Extraordi-
nary, or
great con-
vention of
the States
General.

In very important junctures is convened an extraordinary assembly of all the states of the seven United Provinces, and which, from the great number of its members, is usually called the Great Assembly (40). This supersedes the ordinary assembly of the States General (41); yet can it form no resolution without the consent of every particular province; but its acts are accounted fundamental laws of the state (a).

S E C T. XIX.

The su-
preme pow-
er of the
state lodged
in the parti-
cular states
of the U-
nited Pro-
vinces.

It is, therefore, manifest, beyond dispute, that the supreme power rests in the Provincial States of the seven United Provinces, and not in the States General (42). Each

(40) Such an assembly was held in 1651, soon after the death of the stadtholder, William II. Gen. Hist. of the U. P. Vol. V. p. 289, &c.

(41) These accordingly did not meet in 1651, whilst the extraordinary assembly continued. Ibid. p. 311.

(a) State of the U. P. ch. viii. p. 359.

(42) In this, however, opinions have differed, at different times; for after the murder of William I. the States General considered the sovereignty, or supreme power, to be inherent in them; and in a resolution of 1584, they expressly declare, that they now were the supreme power of the country. And some provinces seemed to be so far of that mind, that they had their stadtholders confirmed by the States General; yet it was not long before some other provinces, and particularly Holland, asserted directly the reverse; that the states of the particular provinces were the depositaries of the supreme power. But three eminent persons, Barneveldt, Hogerbeets,

is

is a free and independent state, with its own particular government, which is lodged in the states of the country ; but this part of the constitution differs, more or less, in all the seven provinces.

In Guelderland, the nobility and towns constitute the states : this province being divided into three districts, Nimeguen, Zutphen, and Arnheim, the burghers and nobility (43) of each hold their particular meetings in each of the said towns, and afterwards a general diet in one of them alternately.

States of
Guelder-
land.

Holland and West Friesland, whose union is of a very antient standing, meet four times a year at the Hague. The states consist of the deputies of the nobility (44), who,

Holland.

and Grotius, being tried in 1619, as offenders against the state, the trial was before the States General, though the accused were inhabitants of Holland, and actually in the service of that province ; a manifest proof of the supreme power being lodged in the States General ; and on this principle was grounded the sentence passed against the three delinquents. But Grotius afterwards proved to demonstration, that the supreme power belongs to the states of each province ; and it has never since been disputed.

(43) The nobility of each district send three deputies to the meetings of the district and to the diet. To the district of Nimeguen belong, besides the town of that name, Tiel and Bommel ; to that of Zutphen, the town itself, together with Duesburg, Deutichem, Lochem, and Grol ; and to that of Arnheim, the town so called, Harderwyk, Wageningen, Hattem, and Elburg ; thus thirteen towns have a vote in the Guelderland diet.

(44) This number is not always the same, the class of nobility and gentry in Holland consisting sometimes of more,

collectively, have only a single vote, and eighteen towns (45). The Pensionary formerly styled the Advocate of Holland, proposes the affairs to be deliberated on, collects the votes, and draws up the resolutions; he is perpetual deputy to the States General, which adds great lustre to his office.

Zealand.

The states of Zealand consist of the first nobleman of Zealand (46), who is the prince of Orange, as marquis of Vere and Flushing; and six towns (47); the diet town is Middleburgh.

Utrecht.

In the province of Utrecht, 1. the Chosen, as they are called, who represent the five chapters of the archbishopric (48). 2.

sometimes of fewer numbers. *Nobilitas curam sui in paucos contulit qui genere ut possessionibus præstantes in commune consulerunt.* Grot. Annal. Lib. V. p. 109.

(45) Namely, eleven in Holland; Dort, Haarlem, Delft, Leyden, Amsterdam, Gouda, Rotterdam, Gorcum, Schiedam, Schoonhoven, Briel: and seven in West Friesland; Alkmaar, Hoorn, Enkhuizen, Edam, Monnikendam, Medemblic, Purmerent.

(46) He represents all the Zealand nobility; and for the origin of this, see Gen. Hist. of the U. Prov. P. IV. p. 85.

(47) These are Middleburg, Zirikzec, Goes, Tholen, Flushing, Vere.

(48) These are eight in number, four noblemen, and four commoners. In the year 1674, William III. among other alterations in the government, added to the number of the Chosen a nobleman, who, at the same time was nominated president of the States of Utrecht. Gen. Hist. of the U. Prov.

The

The nobility; and, 3. the towns constitute the states of the province (49), who meet at Utrecht.

The states of Friesland are, 1. The deputies of the three districts of Oftergo, Westergo, and Zevenwolden (50), into which the province is divided; and, 2. eleven towns (51). They hold their meetings at Leuwarden. Friesland.

The states of Overijssel consist, 1. of the nobility, who are divided into three classes, Salland, Twenthe, and Vollenhofen: and, 2. The three towns of Deventer, Campen and Zwooll. The diet, of which the justiciary of Salland is president, is held alternately every year in one of the three towns. Overijssel.

In the province of Groningen, the deputies of the city of that name, and of the Ommelande, constitute the states; and these are appointed, partly by the nobility, and Groningen.

(49) Namely, Utrecht, Amersfort, Rhenen, Wyk Te Duurstede, and Montfort. But the four last are of little weight in the diet, being, in a great measure, obliged to conform to the provincial city.

(50) These three districts are divided into thirty jurisdictions, called Grietenyen, each with its Grietman, or Justiciary. Every Grietenye sends to the annual diet two Volmachten, or plenipotentiaries; one of whom is a nobleman, and the other a proprietor of a freehold estate.

(51) These are Leuwarden, Bolsward, Franeker, Sneek, Dokkum, Harlingen, Staveren, Sloten, Warkum, Ylst, Hindelopen; and each sends two deputies to the diet.

partly by the commonalty at the yearly diet, which is held in the city of Groningen (*b*).

In the assemblies of the particular states of these seven provinces, the resolutions are determined by majority of votes; but in such important affairs, as require unanimity in the assembly of the States General, here, likewise, a single dissent defeats the business (*c*).

Drente.

The province of Drente, though comprehended in the body of the United Provinces, and bearing a part in the general contributions, has no seat or vote in the assembly of the States General (52), but is a free commonwealth, having its own independent government.

S E C T. XX.

Real and singular constitution of the United Netherlands.

On a general and particular survey of the constitution of the United Netherlands, it

(*b*) See Basnage dans la Description Hist. du Gouvernement des Provinces Unies devant le premier tome de ses annales des Provinces Unies, ch. xvi.

(*c*) Jannisson, Tom. I. ch. ii. p. 87, 88.

(52) The province of Drente has several times endeavoured to obtain a vote in the assembly of the States General, and particularly exerted itself in the year 1651, at the holding of the great assembly, when the nobility and freeholders of the country of Drente were actually summoned; but this little availed them, being dismissed again, under pretence that it was owing to an oversight in the clerk of the writs. Gen Hist. of the U. P. The nobility and towns of the part of Brabant subject to the state, claimed the like privilege, as they had often done before; but have never been able to carry their point. Ibid. 246.

appears

appears to be a very complicated body with many members. For, as the whole state consists of seven provinces, united by the union of Utrecht; so each of these is composed of several free towns, and the noblesse, with other landholders, likewise connected by one common constitution. And as the assembly of the States General depends on the states of the particular provinces, so these depend on the towns, the nobility, and other landholders, who have a vote in the provincial diet. In the seven United Provinces are fifty-six cities or towns, which sit and vote in the assemblies of the states; and near as many classes of nobility and freeholders possessed of the like right, which makes at least a hundred votes; all of which have an influence on the general affairs, first in the meetings of the states of the several provinces, and afterwards in the assembly of the States General. Thus the first springs by which the body of the United State is put into motion, is to be sought for in the towns and nobility (*d*).

S E C T. XXI.

This form of government, however, is its defects. not without its imperfections, and these not

(*d*) Present State of Holland, ch. ii. p. 72.

small,

small, being naturally attended with extreme slowness in the determinations of the state; experience has evinced this more than once, especially in affairs requiring unanimity, whole years having sometimes elapsed, before an unanimity could be brought about. Farther, the sentiments and views of the provinces often clash; what is advantageous to one, being, in certain cases, detrimental to another. This produces debates and quarrels in their deliberations. The measures favoured by one party, another will, perhaps, combat by proposals directly opposite (53); and thus no resolution can be formed, and consequently nothing goes forward. These, in reality, are no slight inconveniencies; or, rather, may very sensibly hurt the state: but there is likewise another, by no means less; the disparity in the ability and weight of the several United Provinces. The ballance herein, being greatly on the side of the province of Holland (54), the others are often obliged to

(53) For instance: if the maritime provinces propose an augmentation of the navy, the others are for increasing the land forces; and thus nothing is done in either.

(54) This province is so far the largest, richest, and most considerable of the United Netherlands, that, among foreigners, they go by the common name of Holland; as the French, Italians, and Spaniards give the name of Flanders to the Austrian Netherlands. Holland pays above one half of the public taxes; and this it is which gives a superior weight to its sentiments in the assembly of the States General.

comply

comply with its opinion; nay, there have been junctures when the government of the state was in no small measure dependant on the good pleasure of that province. This remarkably appeared in the interval from 1650 to 1672. John de Witt, at that time grand pensionary, by his unlimited influence over the states of Holland, steering then what course he pleased, never failed, in the assembly of the States General, to carry the opinion of that province, or, which was the same, his own; so that, in weighty affairs, no resolution was taken, but such as the Hollanders and he approved of: and as this greatly increased his and their consideration, as much did it curtail the power, and eclipse the dignity of the other provinces, to the subversion of the original equilibrium of the state. But on the very same principle that Holland frequently gave laws to the other provinces, so the opulent city of Amsterdam has assumed a superiority over its co-states in the province of Holland; and sometimes has hindered both the resolutions of the province, and of the States General from taking place (56).

(56) A remarkable incident appeared in 1683, "When France, contrary to the peace of Nimeguen, invaded the Spanish Netherlands, the prince of Orange, in order to protect them, as the barriers of the state, proposed levying 16,000 men. This proposal being brought on the carpet, in

S E C T.

S E C T. XXII.

Title of the
States Ge-
neral.

The States General are stiled, the High and Mighty Lords, the States General of the United Provinces (*). The title of high and mighty lords (†), pursuant to a resolution in the year 1639, is always to be used in speaking and writing to them (e). All the European princes now give it to them (†), the king of Spain (§) excepted, who calls them only the Lords States General (f).

the assembly of the States General, the nobility, and the far greater part of the cities, very readily came into it; but Amsterdam flatly opposed it; and its deputies, by instructions from the council of that city, even held conferences with the French Envoy, the count D'Avaux, and maintained, that under certain restrictions, it was no more than what was allowable. In a word, the opposition of that single city, put a stop to the levying of men; and Spain, in 1684, was obliged to conclude a very disadvantageous truce for twenty years.

(*) De Hoog Moogen de Heeren Staaten Generaal der Vereenigde Nederlanden.

(†) In Latin, Celsi & Potentes, or Præpotentes Domini; in French, Hauts & Puissans Seigneurs.

(e) Gen. Hist. of the U. P.

(†) This title was first given them by the imperial court in 1710, and by the crown of France 1717.

(§) So early as the negotiations for the twelve years truce, the States General claimed this title; but the Spanish ambassadors absolutely refused acknowledging it, which gave occasion to the word *Illustres* being made use of in the treaty. See Du Mont Corps Diplom. Tom. V. P. II. p. 99.

(f) Janison, Tom. I. p. 76.

The

UNITED NETHERLANDS.

381

The states of Holland are termed noble, great, and mighty lords (*). Whilst the states of the other provinces are satisfied with the title of noble and mighty lords (†).

At the accession of the States General to the treaty of Seville, concluded between France, Great Britain, and Spain in 1729, the king of Spain gave them, in a separate article, the title of High and Mighty Lords.

S E C T. XXIII.

The arms of the States are a lion sol (‡), ^{Arms.} with a sabre in his right fore paw; and in the left seven arrows sol, tied together, (§). Sometimes the shields of all the seven provinces are put together in a circular disposition, with the crowned-lion in the centre; on the right of the circle a man in armour, holding in his right hand the seven golden arrows, and in his left the Utrecht shield (g).

(*) *Edéle Groot Mogende Heeren*; in French, Nobles, Grands, & Puissans Seigneurs.

(†) *Edele Mogende Heeren*; in French, Nobles & Puissans Seigneurs. Vid. *Commentariol. de Statu Fœder. Belg. Provinc. cap. ii. § 9.*

(‡) Before the peace of Munster the lion had on his head a hat, as the emblem of liberty; but that was afterwards changed to a crown; in token of independency and sovereignty. *State of the United Netherlands, p. 358.*

§ For the origin of this coat of arms, see *ibid. p. 357.*

(g) See professor Gatton's *Newest Manual of Genealogy and Heraldry. Article United Netherlands (a German work).*

S E C T.

S E C T. XXIV.

Brief ac-
count of the
stadtholder-
ship.

Whilst the Netherlands made a part of the dominions of Burgundy, and afterwards of Austria and Spain, each particular province was governed by a stadtholder, or king's lieutenant; this constitution was retained, at the erection of state of the United Netherlands; and the male descendants of William Prince of Orange, have, for almost these hundred years past, been stadtholders of most of the provinces. Philip II. king of Spain, on his leaving the Netherlands, appointed that prince Stadtholder, or his lieutenant over Holland, Zealand, and Utrecht. Upon the duke of Alva's coming into the Netherlands with a Spanish army, he withdrew from the storm which threatened both himself and these countries, and retired into Germany (*b*). But a prosecution being commenced against him in his absence, he took up arms, and made several attempts to free the Netherlanders from the tyranny of that inhuman commander, but was unsuccessful. The Water Geuses, as they were called, having surpris'd the Brill, most of the towns in Holland and Zealand, and some in Guel-

1559.

1567.

1572.

(*b*) Gen. Hist of the U. P. Vol. III. P. III. p. 21, 103.

derland and Overijssel, joined with him against the Spaniards. At an assembly of the states of Holland, held soon after in Dort, the prince, by a seemingly inconsistent procedure, was a second time acknowledged the king of Spain's stadtholder, or lieutenant over Holland, Zealand, and Utrecht (57). An open war breaking out against Spain, 1576. the two former provinces uniting, conferred on him the regency, with the title of Head and Chief Commander, and full power, during the war, to act (i), as sovereign. But this power was very uncertain; the sovereign's ordinances and grants being in Holland registered sometimes in the name of the king of Spain (k), sometimes of the nobility and towns (58); sometimes in that of the archduke Matthias, as head stadtholder (59); sometimes in that of the prince of Orange, and the nobility and

(57) He likewise, since that time, conducted the government; sometimes under his own hand and seal; sometimes as the king's lieutenant, and with no less power than appertained to the king himself, as count of Holland and Zealand. Gen. Hist. of the U. P.

(i) Ibid. P. III. p. 170, 226, 266.

(k) Hollandt's Placcaet-boeck, P. I. fol. ii. 24, 49, 56.

(58) The Nobility, Gentry, and States, representing the towns and counties. Hollandt's Placcaet-B. P. I. fol. XL. 16.

(59) Who had been chosen by the states of the Netherlands, in opposition to Don John of Austria, nominated by the king of Spain.

towns

1581.

1582.

1584.

towns jointly (60); sometimes the prince of Orange alone (l). These variations subsisted even after the union of Utrecht, till the king of Spain was formally deprived of his sovereignty over the United Provinces; on this exclusion, the government with which the prince had been before invested, was confirmed without limitation of time (m), and all warrants and ordinances were issued in his name (61). In this state affairs remained, though the duke of Anjou had in the interim been chosen sovereign by the states. But upon his withdrawing out of the country after the miscarriage of his attempt on Antwerp, the provinces of Holland and Zealand invested the prince of Orange with the sole sovereignty under the title of count. The instrument had been delivered to him, and preparations were making for paying him the customary homage; but a Spanish assassin stabbed him, at that very juncture, at Delft; and thus was this important affair interrupted,

(60) The prince of Orange, jointly with the nobility and states of Holland, as representatives of that country. Hollandt's Placcaet B. P. I. fol. 50.

(l) Hollandt's Placcaet Boeck, fol. 53.

(m) Hist. of the United Netherlands, P. III. p. 398.

(61) The title which he commonly used in these, was William, by the Grace of God, Prince of Orange, Count of Nassau, &c. as invested with the supreme authority of the counties of Holland, Zealand and Friesland. Hollandt's Placcaet Boeck, fol. 63, 67.

UNITED NETHERLANDS.

385

when on the eve of being finally concluded (*n*).

The premisses shew, that William I. cannot properly be ranked among the stadtholders, though this has been done by many, and some late authors (*o*). After^{1585.} his death, the states of the United Netherlands conferred the dignity of stadtholder in chief on the earl of Leicester, whom queen Elizabeth had sent over with troops to their assistance. The states of Holland and Zealand, however, had, from political motives, created prince Maurice, second son to the deceased prince of Orange, stadtholder over their provinces; and this is the first stadtholder appointed by the particular states of that country (*p*). The earl of Leicester resigning his stadtholdership, prince^{1587.} Maurice was chosen stadtholder by Guelderland, Utrecht and Overijssel (*q*), and thus had the sovereignty in five provinces; ^{1589.} and this dignity was continued to his brother ^{1625.} Frederic Henry, and his son, William the ^{1647.} Second.

(*n*) General Hist. of the United Netherlands, P. III. p. 450.

(*o*) Janison, Tom. I. ch. x. p. 239.

(*p*) General Hist. of the United Netherlands, P. III. p. 508.

(*q*) Ibid. P. IV. p. 32.

Count William Lewis of Nassau (62) had obtained the stadtholdership in Friesland, in the year 1583; and in the 1594, that of Groningen (r). On his decease, he, in 1620, was succeeded in Friesland, by his brother, Ernest Casimir, count of Nassau Dietz; but Groningen and Drent chose prince Maurice (s), in whose person, the stadtholdership of six of the provinces were now united. But, after his demise, count Ernest Casimir was made stadtholder of Groningen and Drent (t); and on his being shot before Ruremond in 1763, his eldest son Henry Casimir was invested with the stadtholdership both of Friesland and Groningen. After his decease, in 1640, Frederic Henry, prince of Orange, endeavoured to procure these honours, as thus he would be sole stadtholder of all the seven United Provinces; but that of Groningen was all he could obtain, and in this he was succeeded by his son William II. Friesland, however, elected William Frederic, brother to count William Casimir (u); and William II, prince of Orange, dying young, he was likewise chosen by the states of Groningen (x):

(62) He was eldest son to John, count of Nassau Dillenburg, younger brother to William I. prince of Orange.

(r) General Hist. of the United Netherlands, P. III. p. 442, and P. IV. p. 57.

(s) Ibid. P. IV. p. 490.

(t) Ibid. P. V. p. 5.

(u) Ibid. P. V. p. 139.

(x) Ibid. p. 291.

the

the stadtholdership of both these provinces has, ever since continued in his male descendants.

But in the five other provinces, Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, and Overijssel, the stadtholdership remained vacant. William II. had made himself many enemies in Holland, by his disputes with that powerful province, and his design on Amsterdam; so that thro' the practices of the grand pensionary, John De Wit, an ambitious man, and irreconcilably averse to the house of Orange, William III. son to that prince, was almost totally excluded from the dignity of his father and ancestors, by the perpetual edict (63). But the French war, 1654. 1672.

(63) It is very probable that John De Wit, in the negotiations with England for a peace in 1654, first suggested to Cromwell his demand, that the then young prince of Orange, William III. should be excluded from the stadtholdership of Holland. Mem. de Guiche. It was carried in this province by a great majority, and the act of seclusion was put into the protector's hands, though the other provinces violently opposed it. This act of seclusion indeed, Charles II. being now restored to the crown of England, was declared void in 1662, and the friends of the house of Orange endeavoured, on several occasions, to re-instate the young prince in the high dignities of his family; but the artful John De Wit defeated all these attempts. He made an overture to the states of Holland, that the post of captain and admiral general, which had always been annexed to the stadtholdership, should be separated from it. This was, in 1667, unanimously agreed to in Holland, where De Wit carried every thing before him; and the perpetual edict was drawn up, by which, not only this separation took place, but likewise the total abolition of the stadtholdership, as far as related to

which broke out within a few years after, gave a turn to the constitutional table. The people rose, and forced the magistrates in several towns in Holland, to repeal the perpetual edict, and proclaim the prince of Orange stadtholder. The like tumults in Zeeland had the like consequences. He was likewise chosen in the three provinces of Guelderland, Utrecht, and Overijssel; and the stadtholdership, with the posts of captain and admiral general, in all the five provinces, were made hereditary to his male descendants (y). He even retained these posts, when king of England, though, in the opinion of some writers of that country, they did not quite agree with royalty (z).

That great prince dying without heirs, the five provinces of Guelderland, Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, and Overijssel, did not fill up the stadtholdership for many years, when William Charles Henry Friso, prince of Orange, and stadtholder of Friesland and Groningen, was raised to that dignity by Guelderland: but the other four provinces remained in *statu quo*, till the French, in the war for the Austrian succession, in-

Holland. In this, however, the other provinces (Utrecht excepted) absolutely declined having any share. Gen. Hist. of the U. P. P. V. p. 466, and P. VI. p. 30. 33.

(y) Gen. Hist. of the U. P. P. VI. p. 260.

(z) Ibid. p. 566.

vading

vading the generality-lands, kindled an insurrection in Zealand and Holland; so that ^{1747.} the states of these provinces, as at the promotion of William III. were obliged to proclaim the said prince of Orange stadtholder, and the like was soon after done in Utrecht and Overysfel. Thus is this prince the first who has held the stadtholdership over all the seven United Provinces. It was likewise made hereditary in his male descendants (a), and more considerable than ever, by the addition of several other posts and prerogatives (b).

S E C T. XXV.

The stadtholder is the head and soul of government in the United Netherlands; ^{The stadtholder's prerogative.} without his approbation, nothing of any importance can be determined and undertaken. His power, however, is not easily defined, not being in all provinces alike; as receiving his dignity from each in particular, and, with it, more or fewer prerogatives (64), as specified in his commission.

(a) Vaderland's Hist. B. LXXVII. § 31, 32.

(b) Ibid. Book LXXIX. § 19.

(64) The power of the stadtholder was formerly small in Guelderland, Friesland and Groningen; but on the insurrections of the people, in the years 1748 and 1749, very much enlarged. Vaderl. Hist. P. LXXIX, § 16—19.

With the stadtholdership is united the post of captain and admiral-general of the United State (65). Thus his power is of a twofold nature, consisting in the exercise of certain great prerogatives: 1. In affairs of state and government; and, 2. In the military, both by sea and land. His weight in the government of the particular provinces is this, that, out of a certain number of persons proposed to him, he nominates the presidents, or chairmen, of most offices and colleges of justice; and likewise the magistrates of many towns; whom, on just causes, he can remove, and put others in their stead. He has also the disposal of several high posts, and can pardon some malefactors, or mitigate punishments. By virtue of the union of Utrecht, he is referee, or arbitrator in any disputes between the provinces. On the other hand, he is to maintain the rights and liberties of the provinces and towns, and to see to the execution of the laws and ordinances, and

(65) The stadtholder is, in the particular provinces, nominated at the same time captain-general and admiral of the province; but this post is different from that of captain-general and admiral of the United State; this had always been held by Maurice, Frederic, Henry, William II. and William III. as stadtholders of most of the provinces; and it has likewise been conferred on William IV. when, in 1747, he was chosen stadtholder of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, and Overijssel.

have

have an eye to peace and good order in the several provinces (c).

The military of the state depends almost entirely on him; for, as captain-general, he is commander in chief of the troops, who take an oath to him equally with the States General, and the particular provinces. He appoints all officers up to a colonel, and, from a list laid before him, chooses the governors of fortified places, and the generals; but his power shews itself in its fullest amplitude, when at the head of the army in the field, as there he has frequently the sole nomination of the generals. But no expedition, nor any military operation, is to be undertaken, without the assent of the States General; and these, sometimes, send deputies to the army, where nothing is to be done but by their approbation (d).

The stadtholder, being likewise admiral-general, the marine of the state is under his administration; though history does not furnish one instance of a stadtholder having commanded a fleet in person, except William III. in his expedition to England. He likewise derives great privileges from this post, being president in all the admiralties, where he appoints his representatives; and

(c) True State of the U. P. ch. xii. p. 336.

(d) Ibid. ch. xii. p. 542.

likewise has the disposal of many military employments. The admirals sometimes receive their orders from him, and to him belongs a tenth part of prizes taken at sea, an article formerly very considerable (*e*). These privileges of the stadtholders, which, in some respects, come very near those of a sovereign (*f*), received no slender addition, on occasion of the last changes, in the year 1747; when William IV. was appointed by the States General hereditary stadtholder, captain general, and admiral of the generality-lands; and the East India company chose him governor, an office conferred on no other stadtholder before him; which gives him some weight in this respectable company. The West India company soon did the like; and thus is the power of the stadtholder greatly enlarged beyond its former state (*g*).

S E C T. XXVI.

Whether the stadtholdership be essential and necessary to the fundamental constitution of the state, and whether of advantage to it.

A question much agitated is, whether the stadtholdership be essential and necessary to the fundamental constitution of the United

(*e*) True State of the U. P. ch. xi. p. 464, and ch. xii. p. 548.

(*f*) See a comparison between the power of a king of Great Britain, and a stadtholder, in the Present State of Holland, chap. ii. p. 84.

(*g*) See Vaderland's Hist. Book LXXIX. § 19.

Nether-

Netherlands, and whether advantageous to it? The first is doubtful, since all that is mentioned in the union of Utrecht, as the fundamental law of the state, has not been defined with sufficient perspicuity and explicitness, and, at most, can be applied only to those who were then invested with that dignity; and the states of the particular provinces had reserved to themselves the liberty of appointing, or not appointing, a stadtholder (*b*). It farther appears, that on the resignation of the earl of Leicester, who, on the death of William I. prince of Orange, had been invested with the government, several provinces reserving the supreme power to themselves, and yet investing prince Maurice with the stadtholdership, had in this acted merely from political views, namely, that the commonalty, being accustomed to see a prince at the head of affairs, might not be without such an object of respect, and thus be the better kept in a proper obedience (*i*). But, in process of time, and especially after the peace with Spain, the states seeing their power sufficiently fixed and strengthened, they conceived that they could do without a stadtholder; and accordingly both after

(*b*) Mart. Schokii Belg. Federat. Lib. II. cap. ix. p. 67, 68.

(*i*) Vaderland's Hist. B. XXXI. § 18.

the death of William II. and William III. the five provinces of Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, and Overijssel, kept the stadtholdership vacant for many years, as of no essential necessity or benefit.

The second part of the question whether the stadtholdership be beneficial to the state, is sufficiently answered in the bad consequences of the state's being without a stadtholder; experience having shewn, that, in such intervals, very great abuses have crept into the management of public affairs; and that the military, particularly, has fallen into total negligence and decay (66); that the people, at such a time, have always broke out into tumults, and by compulsion effectuated the restoration of the stadtholdership, as the best and only way for retrieving the miscarriages of the administration. This stadtholdership, as now general, is undoubtedly a great benefit to the whole state, the tie of union between the particular provinces being strengthened, and harmony more easily maintained by the intervention

(66) When, in the war with England, in 1665, the bishop of Munster invaded the state, it was not able to make head against such an inconsiderable enemy, without having recourse to foreign auxiliaries. On the breaking out of the French war in 1672, the country was almost defenceless, and all the frontier towns fell into the hands of the enemy, almost without striking a blow. This was likewise the case in 1747, when the French attacked the generality-lands.

of such a power, so that it may, in general, be concluded advantageous: yet are we not at all to wonder, that it is represented in black colours by certain persons of rank, as having lost by it a great part of their consideration and power.

S E C T. XXVII.

Accordingly there has long been a great opposition of sentiments relating to the stadtholdership, and these broke out with particular vehemence in the province of Holland, on the peace made between the state and England in 1654, the then young prince of Orange, William III. being excluded from the stadtholdership, without the knowledge or consent of the other provinces. The states of Zealand, Friesland, and Groningen, made very strong remonstrances against such procedure, not without many expressions of indignation. Holland, in return, published a prolix manifesto, the chief author of which was John de Wit, grand pensionary of Holland, strenuously asserting the propriety and right of exclusion. This produced (*k*) in the United Provinces, and particularly in Holland, two parties, one for the appointment of a stadtholder, the

Parties relating to the stadtholdership.

(*k*) Gen. Hist. of the U. P. 384.

other

other against it (1). The latter were known by the name of the Loevestein (67), or de Wit party, their partizans styling themselves patriots, and friends to liberty (68). These parties have likewise been kept up in succeeding times, amidst all the several changes and revolutions in the stadtholdership; and the effects of their collisions are often seen to this day (69).

(1) Beaumarchais, P. II. Lettr. VI.

(67) From the castle of Loevestein in Holland, where William II. confined six of the states of Holland, and among them James de Wit, father of the city of Dort; who, when his son, the famous pensionary de Wit, bid him good morrow, used to put him in mind of his confinement at Loevestein, at which the old gentleman's eyes would sparkle with exultation. *Memoirs de Guiche.*

(68) The soul of this party was the famous John de Wit, who, accordingly hindered the promotion of William III. prince of Orange, till the breaking out of the French war, in 1672. Several of his adherents, whilst he was at the helm, wrote whole volumes against the stadtholdership, (*Vid. Bunderi Biblioth. Hist. Sel. ch. xiv. § 22, p. 554*) maintaining it to be, not only an endless burden to the province of Holland, but even detrimental and dangerous to liberty. The most remarkable of all these writings was that by Van Hoven, written on de Witt's principles. Among other things, it contains P. II. ch. xiv. a scheme, "That should the five provinces of Guelderland, Zealand, Friesland, Overijssel, and Groningen, choose one and the same stadtholder and captain-general, (on a supposition that he would set up to be sovereign of all the seven provinces) then Holland and Utrecht (which, at that time, concurred with Holland in its opposition to a stadtholder) should separate themselves from the other five provinces, and could make themselves invincible, by cutting a canal from the Suder sea into the Leck, and farther." Such chimerical projects could hatred to the stadtholdership produce in the brains of that statesman.

(69) Even since the restoration of the stadtholdership in 1747, the de Witt party has shewn itself to be still confi-

S E C T. XXVIII.

The first stadtholders of the house of Orange were satisfied with the title of excellency; but that growing too common, Lewis XIII. king of France, gave Frederic Henry, prince of Orange, the title of Highness (70): to which the States General made no difficulty of conforming (*m*), and it has ever since been constantly used. The present hereditary stadtholder's title, is as follows: Prince of Orange and Nassau, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral of the United Netherlands, President of the nobility and gentry of Holland and West Friesland, Governor and Director general of the Netherland Indies, likewise Chief Forrester of Holland and West Friesland, &c. &c. &c. (*n*)

The princes of Orange have never borne any particular coat of arms as stadtholders.

derable in Holland; one instance of it is, the paper war; to which Vaderland's History gave rise. John de Witt being not only justified in many of the pamphlets, but set forth with the highest encomiums, so that it may be said of him, he is a saint who has still very many worshippers.

(70) The French court being then, jointly with the state, carrying on a war in the Spanish Netherlands against Spain, were for obliging the prince; and accordingly, in 1637, gave him that unusual title.

(*m*) Gen. Hist. of the U. P.

(*n*) Annual Register of the several councils and boards at the Hague.

S E C T.

S E C T. XXIX.

State of religion in the United Netherlands.

The violent persecutions for religion (71), occasioned the first commotions, which proved the preamble to a general revolt; so that the protestant religion may be considered as one cause, which gave existence to the state of the United Netherlands. At the union of Utrecht, instead of laying down any precise ordinances concerning religion, every province was left to make such regulations in that article, as it should judge most conducive to its tranquility and welfare (o). But the reformed religion came gradually to be established in all the seven provinces. In the beginning of the last century, however, the different opinions of the two Leyden professors of divinity, concerning the elector, occasioned very violent ferments (p). Each had soon a numerous party, distinguished by names (72), and

(71) These persecutions raged most under Philip II. who was for introducing the inquisition; though the supposed heretics had not been spared under Charles V. and even the inquisition let loose on them. The rigour of the chief inquisitor drew on him a very keen satire, which, after his death was published with this title: *D. Rikardi Tappart Enthufani hæreticæ pravitatis primi & postremi per Belgium Inquisitoris Apotheosis.*

(o) Gen. Hist. of the U. Prov. P. III. p. 338.

(p) Ibid. p. 311.

(72) Arminians and Gomarists; the former were afterwards called Remonstrants, and the latter Contra-Remonstrants. Ibid. p. 321.

whose animosities, besides a schism in the church, shook the state itself *.

The doctrine of Arminius was, at length, condemned as erroneous by the synod of Dort, held in the years 1618 and 1619 (q). Not that all the provinces immediately admitted the assembly's decrees, it being not till many years after, in 1651, that the great and extraordinary assembly of the states passed a resolution, "That each and every one of the United Provinces, should, with the whole power of the country, defend the true christian reformed religion, as taught every where in the public churches, and never permit any alteration to be made therein (r)." Since which time the decrees of the synod of Dort have been a part of the symbolical books of the reformed churches of the United Provinces (73).

* These broils proved fatal to M. Barneveld, an Arminian, then advocate of Holland, who was beheaded on some specious charges. His death has been commemorated by a medal, representing him on a scaffold, surrounded by soldiers. The motto: *Mauritiana meum cinxerunt signa Catonem*. The celebrated Grotius, likewise an Arminian, was condemned to perpetual imprisonment, but his wife artfully conveyed him away in a chest. Vondel, a famous Dutch poet, wrote an allegorical tragedy on the execution of Barneveld, called *Palamedes, or Injured Innocence*.

(q) Gen. Hist. of the United Netherlands, P. IV. p. 452.

(r) Ibid. P. V. p. 310.

73 The others are: The Confession of Faith of the Reformed Churches of the Netherlands, which was received at the very beginning of the disturbances; and the Heidelberg Catechism, together with the Liturgy; of all these symbolical

Though

Though the reformed religion alone enjoys the legislative protection and countenance, and none but its members have any share in the government, yet all other sects (s) are tolerated (74), only behaving as good subjects (t).

By the constitution of the reformed churches in the United Netherlands, every community has its minister, elders, and deacons. The two former, who meet weekly, make a consistory, of which, in some towns, the deacons are likewise members. The meeting of deputies from neighbouring churches, who are a minister and elder, is called a Class, which is held in least three times in the year, and in some places seven; the annual meeting of the several classes of a province is termed a Provincial Synod, and

books Messrs. Sylburg and Revins have published a Latin and Greek translation, with the title of *Belgiorum Ecclesiarum Doctrina & Ordo: h. e. Confessio, Catechesis, Liturgiæ Canones Ecclesiastici. Græce & Latine.* (Hardervici 1627-8).

(s) Concerning these, see State of the United Netherlands, chap. iii. p. 64.

(74) The principles of toleration have been constantly observed, except in the heat of the Arminian controversy, when the Arminians were not allowed to hold any religious meeting, and their ministers, in particular, severely treated; but such procedures were chiefly owing to the clergy, whose bitterest hatred is always kindled against those of their own party, who are for making innovations. Some Dutch politicians have since found fault with these severities, and even advanced, that the laws against the catholics should be something relaxed. But, at present, neither these nor the Arminians can complain of being too hardly dealt with.

(t) State of the United Netherlands, chap. ii. p. 27, 28.

every

every class sends to it two or three ministers, and one or two elders. The assembly of all the provincial synods, is composed of a general, or national synod (75); and to this, besides the deputies from the single provincial synods, foreign reformed churches have likewise sent representatives (*u*).

In the United Netherlands are nine provincial synods (76), and fifty-three classes (77), with fifteen hundred and seventy-two ministers (*x*), exclusive of the many Walloon, or French congregations, these having their particular constitution, and holding synods twice a year (*y*).

S E C T. XXX.

That youth may be duly instructed in the principles of religion, and in reading and writing, the government has founded schools Schools and universities.

(75) Though such an assembly has not been held since the synod of Dort, yet twenty-one preachers from all the provincial synods are sent every three years to the Hague and Leyden, to inspect the original of the acts of the synod of Dort, kept at the former place, and the original of the translation of the State Bible, as it is called. State of the U. P. chap. II. p. 57, 58.

(*u*) Ibid. chap. II. p. 30, 39, &c.

(76) Two in Holland, one in every other province, and one in Drente.

(77) Among these classes are included the German reformed, and the English presbyterian congregations. State of the U. P. chap. II. p. 48.

(*x*) Ibid. chap. II. p. 47.

(*y*) Ibid. p. 51, 52.

in every town and village (z). Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and other large cities, have grammar schools (a); and Leyden (78), Franeker (79), Groningen (80), Utrecht (81), Harderwyk (82), are universities (b). Thus each of the United Provinces has its university, (Zealand and Overijssel excepted) tho', in the opinion of some, they do not stand in need of any; and three of the above-mentioned five might very well be spared (c).

S E C T. XXXI.

Haaerlem
academy of
sciences.

In the year 1752, a society of learned persons erected an Academy of Sciences at

(z) Schookii Belg. feder. lib. XVII. cap. I.

(a) Ibid. cap. VII. XI.

(78) An university was founded here by William I. and the States of Holland, in recompence of the brave defence made by the city against the Spaniards in 1574: what must appear something odd, the charter was made out in the name of the king of Spain, against whose arms that courage, of which the charter was a commemoration, had been exerted. Hist. of the U. P.

(79) This was instituted by the states of Friesland in 1585.

(80) Erected in 1614, by the city of Groningen and its environs.

(81) This university was inaugurated in 1636, and the revenues of a nunnery, which had been sequestrated, assigned for its support.

(82) The states of the Velau quarter had erected an university here in the year 1600: but the expences being too heavy, it soon came to nothing; the states of Guelderland, however, in 1647, restored it; and it has ever since subsisted with repute. Gen. Hist. of the U. P. P. V. p. 117.

(b) Schookii Belg. Feder. lib. XVII. cap. II.

(c) Ibid. cap. XII. p. 407.

Haaerlem,

Haaerlem, which has already acquired great reputation by its Transactions, that have been published from time to time. It subsists intirely by itself, without any contribution from the state.

S E C T. XXXII.

The United Provinces, though of no Fine arts, great extent, have produced more men of learning, than many large kingdoms: but it cannot be said (*d*) that they are held in any extraordinary consideration. Among the several branches of literature, the Netherlands have always shewn a particular attachment to Greek and Latin, philology, and criticism, as appears by their numberless editions of the antient Greek and Roman writers, with notes. A great part of their works are likewise written in elegant Latin; and that language has been adopted by many of their poets; among whom, the most distinguished are, Johannes Secundus, the Dutch Ovid, the two Doufas, Gaspar Barleus, Dominicus Baudius, Daniel Heinsius, and many others. The celebrated Grotius, much admired as a civilian, divine, philosopher, historian, and statesman, stands inrolled among their Latin poets.

(*d*) Beaumarchais, P. II. Lettre 28.

The Dutch language, however, is of late come into vogue on Parnassus; and Cats, Vondel, Van der Gose, Feitama, Steenwyk, &c. are highly admired by their countrymen (e).

S E C T. XXXIII.

The higher
sciences.

The universities of the Netherlands have always been filled with professors of eminent abilities, particularly the divines. But such a spirit of discord has so unhappily prevailed, as to throw the reformed churches into violent controversies, which are ever productive of animosities and rancour; these animosities lasted near an hundred years, if they can be said to be yet extinguished (83). The Netherland Civilians have deserved well of the literary world, by their application to the Roman laws; but have written little about the laws of their own country, and still less about the law of nations; Grotius and Bynkershook being the only two of any great repute. In physic, and some of its parts, as anatomy, botany, and chemistry,

(e) Beaumarchais, p. 29, 30, and Lettres Holland. Tom. I. Let. 23.

(83) Scarce were the Gomarist and Arminian controversies decided by the synod of Dort, than a fresh one sprung up between Voetius of Utrecht; and Cocceius of Leyden, both very great men in their way; and from hence the Voetian and Cocceian parties are still existing in the provinces. Mosheim. Institut. Hist. Eccles. p. 866.

many

many have acquired a superior reputation. Among the philosophic sciences, natural and experimental philosophy have most engaged the attention of the Dutch literati; whereas, in the merely speculative parts, they have not shewn the like indefatigable pursuits (84).

S E C T. XXXIV.

All the fine arts are cultivated in Holland, but not with equal improvements; particularly architecture has not been brought to any considerable perfection, nothing farther being consulted beyond neatness and conveniency, without any great regard to delicacy and magnificence. The like, some think, may be said of sculpture; the many statues one meets with, being either the works of foreigners, or copies. But in painting, Holland has always produced eminent masters, and their pieces have been particularly admired, for an exact imitation of nature, even in the smallest circumstances (*f*).

Of archi-
tecture,
sculpture,
and paint-
ing.

(84) Some accounts, though but slight of the men of learning, and state of the sciences in the Netherlands, are to be found in Let. Hol. Tom. II. Let. 1 and 2.

(*f*) Beaumarchais, P. II. Let. 28. Lettres Holland. Tom. II. Let. 3. Present State of Holland, ch. vi.

S E C T. XXXV.

Of engra-
ving.

The Netherland engravers formerly surpassed any in Europe ; and the taste and decacy of their performances were admired, when, among other countries, this art was in its infancy. In Holland, it is so common, and copper plates are such a recommendation, that scarce a book is published, without, at least, a beautiful frontispiece (*g*).

S E C T. XXXVI.

Letter-
founding,
printing and
bookselling.

The Dutch are likewise the best letter-founders in the world, and supply the principal presses in Europe with types, especial in the Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, and other oriental languages (*b*). Printing, as an invention which they ascribe to themselves, they have carried to an unrivalled perfection. The multitude of books printed in Holland (85), creates a very considerable trade, and every way advantageous, employing great numbers of hands, and bringing in money from foreign parts (*i*).

(*g*) Present State of Holland, ch. vi. Beaumarchais, P. II. Lettre 28.

(*b*) Present State of Holland, ch. vi.

(85) The Dutch booksellers never fail re-printing all foreign publications which have sold well.

(*i*) Beaumarchais, P. II. Lettre 16.

S E C T.

S E C T. XXXVII.

The state of the United Provinces, consisting of several free countries, each has its own laws, and the legislative power within itself; nay, different towns have their particular law, and the magistrates may make new laws (86) for their respective burghers (*k*). The Roman law was formerly unknown in the Netherlands; but under Charles the Bold, and still more under Charles V. and Philip II. the Justinian code was introduced throughout the provinces (87), and to take place in all cities where the municipal laws or the antient custom and ordinances of the state were silent (*l*).

S E C T. XXXVIII.

Each province has likewise its own upper and lower courts of justice, the former held in the towns, in manors, and other districts, with appeal to the upper, or provincial

(86) Laws made by the magistracy of a town, are distinguished by the name of Ruren, and their privileges are called Handvesten.

(*k*) Schook Belg. Federat. Lib. IV. cap. i. ii.

(87) It is not, however, equally used in all provinces, Schook. Lib. IV. cap. iii. mentions many cases that do not come within the Roman law.

(*l*) Schook. Lib. IV. chap. iii. Otto in Notit. Rer. Public. ch. VI. § 34.

court (88) ; and from this an appeal lies to the states (*m*) : but a general high court of justice for all the seven provinces has never yet been instituted (*n*).

The generality-lands have three high courts of justice : 1. The court of Brabant, and of the country of Over-Maaze : 2. The council of Flanders ; and, 3. The council of Guelderland. The first sits at the Hague, the second at Middleburg, the third at Venloo ; and to these appeals lie from the lower courts of their several jurisdictions. The councils of Brabant and Guelderland judge without appeal ; and if a revisal be granted, the States General appoint some assessors to the former judges. But from the council of Flanders, an appeal lies to the States General (*o*).

(88) It is called simply the Hofor court, as the court of Guelderland, the court of Holland, Zealand, &c. The court of Guelderland is held at Arnheim ; that of Utrecht at Utrecht ; that of Friesland at Leuwarden ; that of Groningen at Groningen ; and this is particularly called De Hoofde-Mannen Kammer, or the Chamber of the Head men. Holland and Zealand have one common court of justice at the Hague, with appeal to the High Council, which judges in dernier resort ; yet a revisal may be obtained, on applying to the states of the two provinces. The province of Overijssel has no particular supreme court of justice, no appeal lying from the courts of Deventer, Campen, and Zwoll ; but any one conceiving himself aggrieved by a sentence of the other courts of this province, may seek redress from the states, which is called De Klaaringe, or Clearance. Shook. Lib. XVI. cap. i. 7. Otto, cap. vi. § 35.

(*m*) Otto, cap. vi. § 35.

(*n*) Schook, Lib. XII. cap. ix.

(*o*) Jannison, Tom. II. ch. i.

The

S E C T. XXXIX.

The states of the United Provinces have ac-^{Land forces.}quired and maintained their liberty by arms, which was not to be done without a very considerable military force. Under prince Maurice, and his brother Frederic Henry, their armies were in such reputation, as to be accounted the best military school; and the young nobility, from most parts of Europe, resorted to their camp, to learn the art of war. Their ordinary land forces, in times of peace, amounted to between 40 and 50,000 men, which, in a war, have been augmented to above twice that number. In the war for the Spanish succession, the states at first maintained 102,000 men, and afterwards 130,000 (*p*). In that to which the Austrian succession gave rise, the number of men in their pay exceeded 80,000; but that war being terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, these troops were gradually reduced to less than half, and the present establishment is only,

H O R S E,

Reg.	Squ.		Men.
		1. Body guards for the hereditary stadtholder	348
		3. Guards —	

(*p*) Present State of Holland, chap. ii.

5. 20.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

Reg.	Squ.		Men.
5.	20.	Horse, each regiment 348 men — —	1740
3.	12.	Dragoons, each regiment 348 — —	1044
Total			3132

F O O T.

Reg.	Batt.		Men.
		Dutch guards —	980
1.	2.	Swiss guards —	1200
	2	Companies of guards at Leuwarden and Groningen	150
26.	52.	National and German, each regiment 731 men	19,006
5.	10.	Swiss, each regiment 1200 men —	6,000
3.	6.	Scotch, each regiment 731 men —	2,193
1.	3.	The Walloon brigade	1,097
1.		Orange-Nassau, 10 com- panies * — —	430
1.		Waldeck, 10 companies†	430
1.		Matrosses, 15 companies	1,800
		Miners, 4 companies	176
		Engineers — —	173

(*) These are cantoned in Dietz.

(†) These are cantoned in the county of Waldeck.

Town

Men.

Town soldiers at Amster-	
dam and Leyden, toge-	
ther with invalids	— 800

Total	34,435
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In all	37,567
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These troops are paid by the seven provinces, the country of Drente, and the generality-countries; according to a certain quota, on settling the number to be maintained (*q*).

S E C T. XL.

Most of the large towns, and particularly on the frontiers, are well fortified; as in Guelderland, Nimeguen, Arnheim, and Zutphen; in Overijssel, Deventer, Zwoll; in Drente, Coeverden; in Groningen, the city of that name. The generality-lands are every where full of fortified towns and forts; as in Flanders, Sluis, Sas van Gend; in Brabant, Bréda, Bergen-op-Zoom, Bois-le-duc, Grave; together with Maestricht; in the upper quarter of Guelderland, the principal are Venloo and Stevenward.

(*q*) See State of the United Netherlands, chap. iv.

S E C T.

S E C T. XLI.

Barrier in
the Austrian
Netherlands

In the war for the Spanish succession, which the States General carried on with such vigour and expence, their chief view was to procure a sure barrier against France, in the Spanish Netherlands, now the Austrian, and to acquire a part of those countries themselves; but in the latter they were frustrated by the conduct of England, at the peace of Utrecht. They, however, in the barrier treaty, made with the emperor Charles VI. in 1715, obtained a right of placing garrisons into several fortified towns of the Austrian Netherlands, as Namur, Tournay, Menin, Furnes, Warnton, Ypres, and Fort-Knock. For the maintenance of these garrisons, 500,000 rix-dollars, or 1,250,000 Dutch guilders, were assigned out of the most certain and clearest revenues in the Austrian Netherlands, particularly Brabant and Flanders (*r*). But in the war for the Austrian succession, all the barrier towns were taken by the French, and the fortifications of most of them demolished, without being ever repaired, differences having arisen between the house of

(*r*) *Traité de Barriere au Corps Diplom. de M. Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 458. Art. IV. XIX. & Art. seq.*

Austria

Austria and the States General concerning the expences.

S E C T. XLII.

The navy of the United Netherlands^{Navy} dates its commencement from the origin of the state itself, and, in no long time, became so considerable, by the extensive commerce of the inhabitants to every part of the world, that about the middle of the last century it was the grēatest of Europe, next to that in England. In the wars, which, at that time, broke out between Great Britain and the state, the most numerous fleets ever known were seen at sea, and had several very obstinate engagements : what is not a little to the reputation of the state is, that in the last of those wars (89), it successfully withstood the efforts of the United fleets of France and England. But its marine is since very much declined ; the chief causes of which are conjectured to be : 1. Its close alliance with Great Britain since the year 1688, which supersedes the necessity of a great navy, as it was chiefly employed against that crown : 2. The decay of trade, consequently of the customs, and other duties on merchandize, these being the chief

(89) In the years 1672 and 1673.

funds for defraying the naval expences :

3. The little care taken of maritime concerns in the forty-five years, from 1702 to 1747, when the greater part of the provinces had no Stadtholder ; and, 4. The dissensions among the provinces, even with regard to the navy ; those which had no great maritime trade, not being very willing to contribute to the increase or repair of it.

S E C T. XLIII.

Naval constitution.

The whole navy is under the management of five admiralties ; 1. That of the Maese ; 2. Of Amsterdam ; 3. Of Zealand ; 4. Of West Friesland ; and, 5. Of Friesland (90) ; all instituted in the year 1597 (91). Upon a resolution of the states to send a fleet to sea, each of the five boards of admiralty fits out its established quota (92).

(90) The first fits at Rotterdam, the second at Amsterdam, the third at Middleburg, the fourth, three months alternately, at Horn and Enkhuizen, and the fifth at Harlingen.

(91) The five admiralty-boards were formerly dependent on the particular provinces ; but, in the said year, they were put under the States General : the members of the boards, however, are nominated by the particular provinces, and in the following proportion : Guelderland three, Holland and West Friesland fifteen, Zealand ten, Utrecht two, Friesland four, Overysseel two, and Groningen two. For the constitution of each of the particular admiralty offices, see State of the United Provinces, chap. xi. p. 447.

(92) The admiralty of Amsterdam always furnishes a third ; and the other four, each a sixth part to an armament. Janison, Tom. I. ch. ix.

It

It is usually divided into three squadrons, with each its flag officer, called the admiral-lieutenant, the vice-admiral, and Schout by Nacht. But the general admiral lieutenant (93), has the command in chief over the whole fleet (s). These are nominated by the States General; but the other flag officers by the states of the provinces, which have admiralty officers. The captains are nominated by the stadtholder, as admiral-general, from a list laid before him by that admiralty to which the vacancy belongs. The captain lieutenants, lieutenants, and other officers, the admiralties themselves appoint by a majority of votes (t).

For the support of the navy are appropriated the customs, and other duties on exports and imports; but these not sufficing for the intended purposes, the provinces raise an extraordinary contribution; or the admiralty-boards are impowered to borrow the necessary sums on certain branches of the customs. These loans, together with the decrease of trade, and prevalence of smuggling, so pernicious to all good government, have exceedingly curtailed the admi-

(63) He is so called, the stadtholder being admiral general.

(s) State of the U. P. ch. xi.

(t) Ibid. ibid.

ralty incomes (94), and thus have been a cause that the naval power is fallen to such decay (u). Seamen, disabled by sickness, wounds, or loss of limbs, have, at their own option, three guilders a week during life, or a certain sum once for all; and a gratuity is fixed by the rules of the navy, for the loss of every particular limb (x).

When a flag officer has distinguished himself, so as to lose his life in action, a stately monument is erected at the public expence; an honour which, among others, has been paid to Tromp the elder, Obdam, and De Ruiter, with several others.

The ships of war out of commission lie mostly at Amsterdam, some at Rotterdam, and in the harbours of the other admiralty cities.

S E C T. XLIV.

Coins.

By the union of Utrecht, each province has reserved the right of mintage; but, at the same time, it was agreed, that all the mints should be under one common regulation, from which no province was to de-

(94) These revenues formerly amounted to five millions of guilders per annum. At present they are short of two.

(u) Janiffon, Tom. I. ch. vi. § 1.

(x) State of the U. P. ch. xi.

part without the consent of all the rest (y); and afterwards it was farther stipulated, that the coins of each particular province, as intended to go current throughout the whole state, should have a like standard (95). For the more punctual observance of this article, a general mint-board was erected at the Hague, which takes cognizance of every thing relative to the coinage, and determines what disputes may arise concerning the intrinsic value of any species of money. This board of mintage consists of three commissioners, a general mint-master, a general warden of the mint, and a secretary; all appointed by the States General (z).

In the United Provinces money is reckoned by guilders, stivers, and pfennings. A guilder is equal to twenty stivers, and a stiver to sixteen pfennings (*). But, as at Brussels, Antwerp, and other places of the Austrian Netherlands, accounts are kept, and reckonings made by Flemish pounds, schillings, and groots, the like is sometimes done in the United Provinces. A pound

(y) Article XII. of the Union of Utrecht.

(95) On any contrary procedure, the money of one province is cried down in the other. State of the U. P. ch. x.

(z) Janison, Tom, I. ch. vi.

(*) In the public issues and receipts, a stiver is reckoned only at twelve pfennings.

Flemish is equal to twenty schillings, and a schilling to twelve groots. The proportion between this and the Dutch money is as follows :

- 1 Pound Flemish is equal to 6 guilders,
- 1 Shilling to 6 stivers,
- 1 Groot to 8 pfennings (a).

The current coins in the United Provinces, are :

1. In G O L D.

Ryders	—	—	14 guilders.
Half ditto	—	—	7
Ducats	—		5 guilders 5 stivers.

2. In S I L V E R.

Ducatoons	—	—	63 stivers.
Three-guilder pieces			60 stivers.
Three-half-guilder pieces			30 stivers(*).
Rixdollars	—	—	50
Half ditto	—	—	25
Quarter ditto	—		12 $\frac{1}{2}$
Albert, or cross guilders			50
Half ditto	—		25
Quarter ditto	—		12 $\frac{1}{2}$
Lion dollars	—		42
Crowns, or two-guilder pieces			40

(a) Account of Coinage, a German work, P. II. cap. iii.

(*) These are particularly called Dalders.

Stamped gold guilders		28 stivers.
Half ditto	—	14
Quarter ditto	—	7
Unstamped gold guilders		26
Half ditto	—	10
Quarter ditto	—	5
Stamped schillings	—	6
Half ditto	—	3
Unstamped schillings		5½
Dubbeltjes	—	2
Stivers	— —	16 pfennings.

3. In C O P P E R.

Duits	— —	2 pfennings.
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The proportion and value of foreign money to that of Holland, is not on any fixed footing, being sometimes higher, and sometimes lower.

There is likewise a difference between Cash, or the Current Money, of which all the above is to be understood, and Bank money. This is about 5 per cent. better than the former, which is owing to the Banks taking only large pieces, and at a lower value than they have in common circulation (b).

(b) Account of Coinage, P. II. cap. iii.

S E C T. XLV.

Revenues of
the whole
state.

Each of the United Provinces have its own revenue, with the right of making such regulations as it pleases concerning its management and application; but the following funds are appropriated to the necessities of the whole state.

1. The produce of the generality-lands.
2. The duties on imports and exports, which are applied to the service of the navy; but as these two branches of the revenue do not answer all expences, the deficiency is made up by
3. An annual contribution of the particular provinces, agreeable to the Petition, as it is called, of the council of state (96),

(96) This contribution of the several provinces, was settled in the year 1612, but some time after, a little alteration was made, in regard to Zealand complaining at being overcharged; so that now towards a hundred guilders, the established proportion is,

Guelderland	pays	5	gilders	11	stivers	2	pfennings
Holland		57		14		3	
Zealand		9		1		10	
Utrecht		5		15		5	
Friesland		11		10		11	
Overijssel		3		10		8	
Groningen		5		15		9	
Drent		0		19		10	

100

When the seven provinces pay a hundred Guilders, the contingency of the country of Drent is one. State of the United Provinces.

which

which varies according to the juncture of affairs.

Besides these ordinary revenues, there are extraordinary and casual, as the sums paid by the East India, and other trading companies, for the renewal, or grant of charters (97). Sometimes contributions are laid on the lands belonging to those companies, as in 1747, in the case of the Free Donation, as it was called (c).

The common yearly income of the state is computed at twenty-one millions of guilders; but, in war time, it has been raised to above double that sum (98); and these extraordinary contributions the several provinces pay according to the above scheme.

The management of the finances of the whole state is lodged in the council of state, and the chamber of the generality-lands.

(97) These sometimes make considerable sums. In 1641 the East India company paid 600,000 guilders for prolonging its charter 25 years; and in 1696, 3 millions of guilders for the like indulgence till the year 1748. State of the United Netherlands, cap. xiii.

(c) Vaderl. Hist. P. XX. B. LXXVIII.

(98) During the second English war, in 1665, 40 millions were raised annually; and in the Spanish succession war 55 millions. Temple's Observat. chap. vii. and Pref. State of Hol. ch. ii.

S E C T. XLVI.

And of the
particular
provinces.

The revenue of the particular provinces arises from taxes and imposts, which each appoints according to its opinion and exigencies. These taxes vary in all the provinces, and are, in general very high, and highest of all in Holland, where, as likewise in Zealand, according to the observation, even of a Dutch writer, not so much as death and marriage are free from taxes(99).

Among the multitude of ordinary taxes, the most remarkable are,

1. The tax on houses, and other immoveables (100), called Verponding (1).
2. The fortieth penny of the purchase money of all immoveables.
3. The twentieth penny on inheritances in the collateral and ascending lines (2).
4. The tax on sowed fields, called Bezaay Geld; i. e. sowing money.

(99) Romæ, reipublicæ frequentandæ causa, cœlibatui tributum impositum, in Hollandia & Zelandia etiam nuptiis; sed ne mori quidem ibi licet impune. Cornel. Van Bynkershoek. Quæst. Jur. Publ. Lib. II. cap. xxii. In ejus oper. Tom. II. p. 251.

(100) This sometimes is the 12th, sometimes the 15th pfenning of the rent.

(1) Among these are even barks above four tons burden. This tax is reckoned, communibus annis, to bring in above 700,000 guilders per annum.

(2) And this is not reckoned much short of the former.

5. Excise

5. Excise on provision and other necessaries (3).

6. The taxes on servants, coaches, and horses, &c.

7. The stamp duty (4).

In case of extraordinary taxes, the Verponding is sometimes levied two or three times a year: and, in urgent emergencies, a capitation has been imposed, and the two hundred, or hundredth penny of every person's substance levied (4). In the year 1747, the fiftieth and hundredth penny, according to the difference of ability were raised, under the name of Benefaction, or Free Gift; and every one, before paying it, was obliged to swear, that he had made the calculation according to the best of his knowledge (e).

All these taxes are levied by receivers appointed for that purpose, except the excise, which, in many parts, is farmed (5). Each

(3) This is very high in Holland, bread and beer paying a third, wine a little less, and turf likewise about a third of the price it is bought for.

(4) The stamps, are from 3 stivers to about 150 guilders; and this duty is supposed to bring in 400000 guilders annually.

(d) Concerning the incomes and taxes, see Janison, Tom. I. ch. i. State of the U. P. chap. v.

(e) Vanderl. Hist. P. XX. B. LXXIII. § 4.

(5) The excise formerly used to be farmed, but in 1748, the people every where rising, on account of the oppressions committed by the contractors, such farming was abolished, except in Guelderland and Friesland. Vanderl. Hist. P. XX. B. LXXVIII.

province has accomptants offices, into which the several monies are paid (*f*).

S E C T. XLVII.

State debt.

The state of the United Provinces having, from its very first commencement, and through the whole former century, till the peace in 1713, been engaged in continual wars, was under the necessity of contracting heavy debts (*g*), and which, some pretend, amounted to four hundred millions of guilders (*g*), before the war for the Austrian succession; by which the burden certainly was not a little increased. Each province has likewise its particular debts, but those of Holland are the greatest; for if this province be the richest, it, on the other hand, pays towards the common taxes more than all the other six together; and, in pressing exigencies, which have frequently occurred, it has advanced very considerable sums. Thus has it, in a more especial manner, been con-

(*f*) Janison, Tom. I. ch. i.

(*g*) Hanway's Travels, Vol. II. ch. 47. The war for the Spanish succession was particularly expensive to the United Provinces, as not only maintaining 130,000 land forces and a considerable fleet, but likewise furnishing the cannon, powder, ball, &c. for besieging a great number of the fortified towns in the Netherlands, during the course of nine campaigns; likewise repairing the works, and keeping the magazines full. Present State of Holl. chap. ii.

tinually (7) loaded with taxes; yet, amidst all burdens, it ever maintained its credit without any flaw.

These debts, however, are not so great an inconvenience to the state, as in other countries, the interest being but low, and the greater part of the creditors its own subjects; who, grown rich by the poverty of the commonwealth, are far from being pleased when their capital is paid off, as not knowing where to place their money in such good security.

S E C T. XLVIII.

The source of the great opulence in the United Provinces, lies in trade; and of this, the manufactures are a very considerable branch. In the former century, there was not a town of any consideration in these provinces, but what was filled with them; so that they supplied the greater part of Europe. But this large demand has, for some time, been on the decline, a sufficiency of the like goods being now made in most countries. The splendor and ostentation of the inhabitants have likewise not a

(7) About the year 1672, the province of Holland owed 65 millions, and after the peace of Ryswic, its debt was not less than sixty millions. Temple, chap. VII. Hanway chap. xlvii.

little contributed to the decay of some manufactures, being taken with the French and English woollen and silk stuffs, and slighting those of their own country (8).

Amsterdam, however, has still many manufactures of gold and silver stuffs, velvet, damask and silks, woollens and cottons of all kinds (b). There are cloth manufactures at Leyden, though by far not so many as formerly (i); likewise in the district of Boisseduc, and in the country of Over-Maaze, which also make a great deal of linen (k).

Farther, several places in Holland, and in the Velau, excel in paper; Delft in earthenware; and Tergouw in pottery, and especially tobacco-pipes (l). The Dutch dyes are generally better than those of any other countries. They have likewise great masters in other arts and trades, as appears from their many machines, their organs,

(8) See Diction. Portat. de Commerce Art. Manufactures, Tom. V. The late stadtholder made several very patriotic proposals to the states of Holland, for reviving the woollen, and more especially the silk manufactures. Vaderl. Hist. P. XX. B. LXXX. § 13. The decay of woollen manufactures is likewise partly imputed to the not breeding a sufficiency of sheep. State of the U. P. ch. xvii.

(b) See Diction. Portatif. de Commerce, Art. Manufactures, Tom. V. p. 296.

(i) Ibid. p. 290.

(k) State of the U. P. ch. xvii.

(l) Ibid. p. 736.

musical clocks, mathematical and astronomical instruments (9), and jewelling and watches, though in the latter they are now surpassed by the English and French. Utrecht makes excellent fowling-pieces; but both Vulcan and Mars seem to have joined in setting up their workshops and magazines at Amsterdam; such numbers of cannon being cast here, and such a number of fire arms made, as to supply Spain, Italy, Turkey, and a part of Germany, with artillery, and powder and ball (*m*).

S E C T. XLIX.

As manufactures support such great numbers of persons in the United Provinces, ^{Fishery.} and enrich not a few, the like may be said of fishing. This was their primitive occupation, which nature itself pointed out, and facilitated to them, by their situation amidst so many large and small waters. Among the many kinds of fishes caught in the rivers, the Zuidersee, and in the ocean, the most considerable is the cod, which every year employs above one hundred and fifty vessels

(9) Zachary Jansen, a glass-grinder, at Middleburg, invented spying-glasses about the year 1608. Gen. Hist. of the U. P. Vol. IV. p. 237.

(*m*) Pref. State of Holl. ch. vi. p. 326.

in the North Sea, the Dogger-Bank, and off the coast of Friesland. They are sometimes brought to market to the nearest towns, fresh, and even alive; but the greater part is salted at sea, and sold both at home and abroad, by the name of Labberdan (*n*). The herring and whale fishery are articles of still much greater advantage.

S E C T. L.

Herring
fishery.

The herring fishery has been carried on with great vigour, especially since the method of salting them was found out (*io*). They are usually caught along the coast of Great Britain. The fishing season begins on the 24th of June, at the isles of Shetland, moving continually southwards, as far as Yarmouth, and lasts till the 25th of November (*o*).

The English used sometimes to raise a dispute about the right of the Dutch to fish on their coasts, and those of Scotland (*ii*).

(*n*) State of the U. P. ch. xviii.

(*io*) This happened towards the close of the 14th century, the inventor was William Beukelszoon, of Biersticht, in Flanders; and the emperor Charles V. is said to have erected a monument to him, at the place of his nativity. Schook, Lib. VIII. ch. ii.

(*o*) Ibid. ch. xviii.

(*ii*) This was done particularly under James I. and Charles I. to the latter of whom, an English writer says, the Dutch were obliged, in the year 1636, to pay 30,000*l*.

These,

These, however, asserted their right, and have, ever since, maintained possession of it.

In the last century, this fishery employed between a thousand and fifteen hundred vessels, some even mount them to three thousand (p). Accordingly it has always been considered as a great branch of the trade of the United Provinces (12), and even as the State's gold mine: on which account it is also distinguished by the name of the Great Fishery; but, at present, that denomination seems something too high; this fishery, since other nations have taken it, being so declined, that the vessels employed in it do not exceed two hundred (13), and the proprietors sometimes are losers (14). It is, however, in general, an advantage to

for the liberty of fishing. Campbell's Lives of British Admirals, Vol. I. p. 328, 329, 393, 394.

(p) See Aanwy's Der Heils. Polit. Gronden deel I. cap. vi. bl. 28, 30.

(12) The States General, and particularly the states of Holland, have, on that account, made several ordinances for its improvements and increase; the most remarkable occurs in State of the U. P. ch. xviii.

(13) These vessels, or herring busses, are generally from between 25 to 30 tons; but the dealers of fish follow them with a multitude of smaller vessels, who take in the new-caught herrings from the busses, and sail away with them to Holland. He who brings the first barrel, receives a considerable reward. State of the U. P. ch. xviii.

(14) Therefore what some write of the great gains arising from the herring fishery, making them amount to some millions, is quite out of the way. Ibid. ch. xviii.

the

the state, being reckoned to afford a livelihood to twenty thousand men, besides the profits accruing to many others (q).

S E C T. LI.

Whale
fishery.

The Biscayners were the first Europeans who failed on the whale fishery; and from them the Dutch learned it. In the beginning of the last century, a society of traders procured a patent for this branch of commerce, under the name of the Northern Company. At first, they carried on the whale fishery off Spitzberg, with very promising success; till having, in a few years, lost many ships among the ice, and the whales, at length, growing so shy, as even to forsake those parts, the company broke up, and the whale fishery was left open (r); but has since been continued on in Greenland, and Davis's Streights, by single adventurers, some of whom likewise unite in small societies. It employs every year about 160, or 200 ships (s). The undertaking, however, is expensive (15), and the profits,

(q) Ibid. ch. xviii.

(r) Jannison, Tom. I. ch. xv.

(s) State of the U. P. chap. xix.

(15) The least cost of a Greenland ship, new from the stocks, is 25,000 guilders, and the rigging, implements, and other expences, may very well be reckoned at 100,000 guilders. State of the U. P. chap. xix.

which

which arise chiefly from the train and whale-bone, very uncertain, as depending on the number of the fish taken (16); and this sometimes exceeds, at other times falls very short, of expectation (17).

§ E C T. LII.

So considerable and extensive is the trade ^{Trade.} of the United Provinces, and especially the maritime, that, according to some accounts, not less than 20,000 ships and vessels are daily employed in it (1). A very large and ^{Home trade} continual traffic, is carried on between the several provinces and towns, for which, indeed, they have a great conveniency in the Zuidersee, and the many rivers and canals, from which goods are carried, from place to place, at a very small charge.

§ E C T. LIII.

The Dutch foreign trade comprehends all ^{Foreign trade.} the known parts of the globe, and is superior

(16) For the Dutch manner of catching and killing the whales, see State of the U. P. chap. xix. The Greenlanders go something differently to work. Anderson's Account of Iceland, Greenland, &c.

(17) These ships, in some years, are known to catch between ten and twelve fish one with another; and in other years return with scarce one.

(1) M. D. Real Sciences, &c. P. I. Tom. II. p. 295.

to that of any other nation. In Spain they trade to Cadiz (18), and every other port of any note. In Portugal, to Lisbon, Porto, and Settubal (19). The harbours of France are most frequented by their shipping, and those of England the least, especially since the act of navigation made there in 1652. A considerable trade, however, is carried on between England and Rotterdam; and the Hollanders and Zealanders go to Edinburgh, Dublin, and Cork (u). The United Provinces deal largely, both in imports and exports, to the Austrian and French Netherlands; especially with Antwerp, Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent, Bruges, Lille, St. Omers and Cambray (x). They likewise, by means of the Elbe, Weser, Ems, Maese, and the Rhine, (several large and opulent cities lying on those rivers) have a great trade with Germany, which the Rhine farther carries up to Swisserland (y).

The North Sea, and the Baltic, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, have not a port of any consequence to which the Dutch

(18) A great part of the goods sent to Spain are forwarded to the Spanish West Indies, in the names of Spanish merchants, who receive the returns in specie and American goods.

(19) This last place the Dutch and English call St. Ubes.

(u) Jannison, Tom. I. chap. xxiii. xxiv. Present State of Holl. ch. ii.

(x) Jannison, Tom. I. ch. xx. p. 479.

(y) Ibid. Tom. I. ch. xix.

do not trade (20); and the like may be said of Livonia, Courland, Prussia, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, and Holstein (z).

In the Mediterranean they trade to all the principal ports in Italy, the north of Africa, Greece, and the islands of the Archipelago and farther: likewise to Constantinople, Smyrna, Aleppo, Scandrona, or Alexandretta, Cairo, and Alexandria (a); which places, together with the others on the Mediterranean, within the Turkish dominions, are distinguished by the name of the Levant (21). This Levant trade, though under the management of a company, erected at Amsterdam in 1624, is left open to any inhabitant of the United Provinces; every ship going thither paying for a licence a guilder per ton of its burden, and on its return one per cent. of its cargo (b). The Levant trade, however, is neither so large, nor so profitable as formerly; and, indeed, every branch of the European trade of the United Provinces, is very much decayed; for the

(20) Archangel was formerly the seat of the Russian trade, but, at present, it is, in a great measure, removed to Petersburgh.

(z) Jannison, Tom. I. ch. xviii.

(a) Ibid.

(21) Smyrna is the centre of the Levant trade, both the Persian caravans, and most of the European ships, resorting thither. Account of the Dutch Trade (a German work).

(b) State of the U. P. ch. xx.

Dutch used to be the carriers for the Italian, Portuguese, and French goods to Germany and the North ; and returned with those of Germany and the North to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy ; whereas, at present, the Danes, Swedes, Hamburghers, and others, perform those voyages themselves, which, of course, is so much loss to the Dutch trade.

The Dutch exports, however, to Italy, Spain and Portugal, exceed the imports, and consequently the balance is made up in specie. In the French trade it is quite the reverse, and that of the Levant and the North are in no better situation. The balance of the former is paid in Lion dollars ; and in the latter, with ducats, Albert and rixdollars.

To Asia and
the East
Indies.

The largest, and most lucrative trade now remaining to the United Provinces, is that to Asia and the East Indies, reaching from the Cape of Good Hope through Arabia, Persia, the Mogul's dominions, and along the main coast, to Tonquin and China ; and still farther, to all the islands in the eastern ocean, as far as Japan (22).

(22) The Dutch, and the Chinese are the only foreigners allowed to trade in Japan. This commerce, at first, was of such advantage, that they annually brought home returns to the amount of six millions of guilders in ready money ; but afterwards their traffic was limited to the single town of

In

In Africa, they traffic from the gold ^{Africa,} coast in Guiney, along to Caffraria (c); and in America to the islands of Curasao, St. Eustatius, and the colonies of Isequebo, Surinam, and Berbice (d). The clandestine trade with the adjacent Spanish possessions is an article of no small advantage.

S E C T. LIV.

The East India, African, and Ameri- ^{Trading} can trades, are managed by particular ^{companies.]} companies, of which, the East India is of the longest standing, and the most considerable. The Hollanders and Zealanders at first fetched East India goods from Portugal; but this kingdom falling under the Spanish Dominion in 1580, and this trade of course ceasing, they began themselves to make voyages to India; and, in 1602, the States General instituted a particular company for the East India trade; its capital amounted to 6,440,200 guilders, divided into shares of 3000 guilders each (23). The

Nugasacki, and there they were confined on a little adjacent island, called Desima; they likewise were not to vend goods to above a million of guilders in a year, by which they gained 80 or 90 per cent. and this is their motive for continuing this Japan trade, which otherwise is attended with many inconveniencies. Kempfer Hist. Japan, Tom. II. p. 232.

(c) Jannison, Tom. I. ch. xiii.

(d) State of the U. P. chap. xiv. xv. xvi.

(23) But such a share at present sells for 18,000 guilders; the price, however, rising and falling according to the com-

Portuguese and Spaniards endeavoured to stifle this new commerce in its birth ; but the company opposing force to force, soon made itself master of the Molucca islands, by which it got sole possession of the spice trade, the most considerable of any, and gradually extended its sovereignty throughout all this part of Asia ; and its residence is at the splendid city of Batavia (*e*), which it had built in the island of Java. Its territories are much larger than all the United Provinces together, and its power without limitation. It appoints governors and magistrates, sends and receives embassies, builds towns and forts, makes war and peace ; is, however, in all things subject to the States General, in whose name treaties with the India princes must be negotiated, and to whom it is obliged to apply for a renewal of its privileges (*f*).

The company is divided into six chambers, Amsterdam, Middleburgh, Delft, Rotterdam, Horn, and Enkhuyzen, each having a certain number of directors, chosen from among the chief proprietors (24). A

pany's dividends. In some years it has divided 40, 50, 60, and 75 per cent. State of the U. P. ch. xiii. Jannison gives a list of all annual dividends from 1605 to 1728. Tom. I. ch. xii. i.

(*e*) State of the U. P. ch. xiii.

(*f*) Ibid.

(24) That is, they who have 3000 guilders old stock.

general

general court is held three times a year, at Amsterdam and Middleburgh alternately, and as consisting of seventeen deputies of the six chambers, it is called the meeting of the Seventeen. Ten directors likewise meet annually at the Hague, in the months of April and May; and these draw up the answers to the letters received from India. These are generally called *Haagscha Be-foignes* (*g*).

In this manner it is, that the company's business is managed at home. In the East Indies the chief person is the Governor General, who takes an oath of fidelity to the company and the States General. He lives in a state and splendor bordering on regality, which is supported by the company, purely to create reverence among the Indians. The next officer to him is the Director General, who controls the purchase and sale of goods. They are the two principal members of the council of India, which, besides, consists of eighteen members and two secretaries; there is likewise a court of justice, which has a president with eight ordinary, and some extraordinary assessors. (*b*).

(*g*) State of the U. P. ch. xiii.

(*b*) Ibid.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

The governor general is captain general, and admiral of the company's forces (25), whom he must sometimes command in person (*i*). The other countries and forts belonging to the company, are under particular governors and commandants, whilst the commercial affairs are managed by directors and other officers (*k*).

It is not with European goods only, that the company carries on its trade to the East Indies; it likewise deals very largely in those of Asia, carrying them from one country to another; and thus, by repeated transportation of European and Asiatic commodities in the East Indies, it collects those which their ships bring to Europe (*l*). The company's ships going to, or coming from India, and which are generally every year about 38 or 40; instead of taking their departure all together, set out at three several times, that all may not be risked at once (*m*). The fleets, in their return, are immensely rich; and, according to a moderate computation, the company has, since

(25) In the year 1664, the company's land and sea forces were computed at 25,000 men; it has in its service above 160 ships, from 20 to 30 guns, besides 40 or 50 smaller vessels. State of the U. P. ch. xiii.

(*i*) Ibid.

(*k*) Ibid. p. 601.

(*l*) Account of the Dutch Trade, ch. xii.

(*m*) State of the U. P. ch. xiii.

its

its institution, to the year 1739, imported goods to the amount of three hundred and sixty millions prime cost ; but, according to the selling price, they do not amount to less than sixteen hundred and twenty millions (*n*). In the year 1672, its income was estimated at between ten and eleven millions (*o*) ; yet, amidst all the prosperity in which it has hitherto maintained itself, a late French writer takes upon him to predict, that the present trade of other European nations to the East Indies, will, ere long, reduce it to a very low ebb (*p*).

The West India company was erected in 1621, and with a fund of seven millions ^{The West India company.} two hundred thousand guilders (*q*). Its first enterprizes were so very successful, as to bid fair for conquering of South America ; but by the bad management of its affairs, and misfortunes, which were partly the consequence of mal-administration, it fell into such decay, and, at the same time, had contracted such debts, that, in 1674, it was abolished. The States General, however, in 1675, erected another, which has subsisted to the present time, but in no very

(*n*) State of the U. P. p. 583.

(*o*) Ibid.

(*p*) M. de Real Science du Gouvern. P. VI. p. 549.

(*q*) Jannison, Tom. I. ch. xiii.

flourishing circumstances (26). Its charter gave it an exclusive trade along the western coasts of Africa, from the tropic of Cancer, to the 30th degree of south latitude; likewise in America to Isequebo and Curasao (r).

But in 1734, the navigation to the coast of Africa, and the slave trade, was laid open to all the subjects of the state, paying a certain acknowledgment to the company (s). Its African possessions are St. George de la Mine, fort Nassau, with some other places; and in America, Curasao, St. Eustatius, Isequebo, and a third part of Surinam (t).

Surinam
company.

The colony of Surinam, in the country of Guiana, in South America, formerly belonged to the English, from whom, in 1667, it was taken by some Zealanders. These sold it to the New West India company; which, unable to bear the charges of maintaining it, disposed of a third part to the city of Amsterdam, and another third to M. Cornelius Van Arfens, lord of Sommelsdyke; reserving only a third for it-

(26) Its dividends have never exceeded 10 per cent. and generally do not run above three, four, or five. Ibid. ch. xiv.

(r) Gen. Hist. of the U. Prov. P. iv.

(s) State of the United Netherlands, ch. xiv.

(t) Ibid. P. 683.

self. These three proprietors form the Surinam company, which, at present is in a pretty thriving condition, and particularly imports a great deal of sugar, coffee, tobacco, &c. (u).

The colony of Berbice, likewise lying in Berbice: Guiana, after various misfortunes, now belongs to four Amsterdam merchants, who, in the year 1720, transferred their property to others: this partition gave rise to the Berbice company; and this again, in 1732, allowed an open trade, in consideration of paying an acknowledgment. Its commodities are sugar, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, cotton, &c. (x).

S E C T. LV.

The greatest trade and navigation of the Trading towns. United Provinces is carried on in Holland and Zealand, and particularly in the cities of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburgh, which, however, must not be accounted on a level; the first being, in some measure, the chief trading city in all Europe. Even an English writer owns its maritime commerce to exceed that of Lon-

(u) State of the U. P. chap. xv.

(x) Ibid. chap. xvi.

don (27); and says, that in funds and income, it is very little short of some kingdoms (28).

The bank of Amsterdam, so famous throughout all the commercial world, has constantly maintained its credit, even in the most dangerous exigencies of the state (29). Some make its specie to be no less than 3000 tons of gold. But though the actual (*y*) amount of the gold and silver bullion and coin kept there be a secret, yet is it looked upon to be the greatest treasure in the world (*z*). And this is not improbable, for money once paid into the bank of Amsterdam never goes out again, unless put in only for keeping; but, as at Ve-

(27) For some years past the number of ships entered at Amsterdam, communibus annis, has been two thousand, and at London not quite 1200. Pref. State of Holland!

(28) The author of the Present State of Holland, ch. viii. computes the daily income of the city of Amsterdam at 5000*l.* sterling; and says, that to its own taxes, and those of the province of Holland, and the state in general, it pays annually 1,600,000*l.* sterling. But, I fear, both calculations are carried a little too far.

(29) In the year 1672, the distresses of the state, on account of the joint war with the French and English, occasioned a great run on the Bank, fearing that the money deposited there, had been lessened: on which the directors ordered the place in which this treasure was kept to be opened, and it was found untouched. They who desired their money had it, and the run turned out to the bank's greater reputation. Voltaire's Age of Lewis XIV. P. I. ch. ix.

(*y*) Beaumarchais, P. II. Lettre XII.

(*z*) Temple's Observat. chap. ii. p. 99; and the Present State of Holland, chap. viii.

nice (30), every one may transfer what money he has in the bank to another in payment (a).

S E C T. LVI.

The council of state, which, next to the Council of state. States General, has the greatest share in the management of public affairs, was instituted in the year 1584, and at first with considerable power, particularly in concerns relating to war and the revenue. And as the States General did not sit continually at that time, the government, in a great measure, rested on this council (b). But since the assembly of the States General is become perpetual, and sits without intermission, they, pursuant to a resolution of the great assembly in 1651, have assumed to themselves the most important articles, leaving to the council of state little more than the execution of their orders (c); so that it has no further cognizance of the troops than in what relates to their constitution, discipline, and levies, as also to the fortifications, maga-

(30) The bank of Amsterdam, which was founded in the year 1609, on the model of that of Venice, is a Banco del Giro, or Circulation Bank.

(a) Hanway's Travels, Vol. II. ch. xlvi.

(b) General Hist. of the U. Prov. P. III. p. 465.

(c) Ibid. ch. ix.

zines, and military stores in the generality-lands and the provinces of Guelderland and Overysfel the fortified towns being looked on as barriers of the state. The financial articles, within the council of the state's sphere, are, 1. The revenues of the generality-lands, together with the contributions in war time, for saving the country from military execution, and the contributions of the seven provinces, and the country of Drent, to the public exigencies (*d*). Accordingly the council of state delivers in, every year, to the States General, an estimate of the expences for the several services of the following year, as for the army, fortifications, &c. and this is called the military establishment, and is accompanied with a representation, setting forth the circumstances of the state, and the necessity of granting those supplies. This representation has always gone under the name of *Petitie*, or petition (*e*). The council of state consists of twelve deputies from the seven United Provinces, Guelderland naming 1, Holland 3, Zealand 2, Utrecht 1, Friesland 2, Overysfel 1, and Groningen 2. These twelve members take their turns week about in the presidentship; the stadtholder likewise sits in the council

(*d*) Jannison, Tom. I. ch. III.

(*e*) Ibid.

of state, and delivers his opinion first. The treasurer, general receiver, and secretary of the council of state are likewise continually present, in order to give the necessary informations concerning any affairs that may come under deliberation (f).

The council of state is stiled Noble and Mighty Lords; and in the generality-lands, its members are on a footing, for titles and ceremonies, with the deputies of the States General (g).

The accomptant-general's office had its beginning in 1607, for the ease of the council of state. Its principal business is settling accounts with the several provinces, relating to their payments, into the state treasury, the auditory, the accounts of the general receiver, the deputy receivers, and all others, who are accountable to the state; likewise of the envoys and ambassadors to foreign courts.

This board consists of 14 deputies, each province naming two; who, like the members of the council of state, are stiled Noble and Mighty Lords (h).

The treasury office is of a longer standing than that of the accomptant, yet is inferior

(f) Jannison, Tom. I. p. 124, and State of the U. P.

(g) Ibid. p. 164.

(h) Ibid. Tom. I. ch. iv.

to it, no less than to the council of state. A great branch of its department is to inspect and settle the accounts relating to the expences of the military establishment for the marches and quartering of the troops. It consists of four commissioners, who are nominated by the States General, and the secretary (i).

S E C T. LVII.

Interest
domestic.

The United Provinces being a state composed by the union of several tribes, the natural object of their attention is the support of this union, together with concord and good order in the general affairs of government; and this important point has been best answered under a stadtholder, so that the restoration of the stadtholdership, and making it hereditary, seems not only an advantage, but even a very necessary requisite to the welfare of the state.

The former prosperity and consideration of this republic are now no more; it is incumbered with very heavy debts, and the manufactures and trade, the sources of its opulence and felicity, are extremely declined. But both the States General, and the particular provinces, have, for some years past

(i) State of the U. P. ch. x. Jannison, Tom. I. ch. v.

been,

been, and still are intent on lessening the national debt, one happy consequence of which may be, that the many and heavy imposts requisite for paying the interest of the debt, will be lessened, and this rendering the necessaries of life cheaper, must, of course, tend to the revival of the manufactures and commerce.

A trading people should, by all means ^{Foreign interest.} avoid war; in the last century, the states were, by the occurrences of the times, and for their own preservation, obliged continually to have the sword drawn, and take part in all the wars and negotiations in Europe. But since the peace of Utrecht they have adopted other measures, and in all the subsequent wars, that for the Austrian succession alone excepted, they have observed a strict neutrality, which, besides great savings, was a vast advantage to their trade.

Agreeable to these pacific principles, they live in harmony with all the powers in Europe; and this the more easily, as not harbouring the least desire or view of aggrandizing themselves to the prejudice of others. Such a prudent moderation promises a long tranquility and happiness to their commonwealth; and though its present situation (its former barrier in the Austrian Netherlands being almost broken down)

down) appears something critical towards that quarter, and France being not its only powerful neighbour, yet is no such invasion to be apprehended, as will put the Dutch in danger of losing their liberty, and falling under a foreign sovereignty. The reciprocal jealousy of states, alarmed at such a conquest, would bring them assistance from all quarters, and check such hostilities : so that the overthrow of the state of the United Provinces by a foreign power is very improbable ; and the accomplishment of the prediction of a celebrated Italian politician (31) who pretended to foresee its approaching ruin from other causes, seems to be no less

(31) I mean cardinal Bentivoglio, who was sometime the pope's nuncio, in the Spanish Netherlands. See his *Relazione delle Provincie Unite di Fiandra*, Lib. III. Cap. vii. p. 126, 127, &c. Among the causes which may bring about the speedy overthrow of this state, he places the dissension of the provinces, and the different religions ; but if disputes have sometimes happened between any of the United Provinces, they never broke out into a civil war, as anti-ently, among the United Republics of Greece ; and, of late, among the Swiss cantons. The difference of the religions, tolerated in the state, will likewise, in all appearance, have no such dangerous consequences as the cardinal, and with him M. de Real (*Science du Gouvernemen. P. VI. p. 548*) prognosticate. For these are only to be feared in such states, where the established church may oppress and persecute the other sects ; but where this is not allowed, all live easily together, as long experience has shewn both in the United Provinces and in England. The toleration of various religions, so far from being detrimental to the state, has been a very considerable advantage ; thither repair great numbers of industrious and skilful inhabitants, whom bigotry would not allow to live in their native countries.

remote

remote: at least a succession of a hundred and fifty years, hath proved his eminence to be much out in his fine spun conjectures.

S E C T. LVIII.

The many wars in which the republic was formerly engaged, and the great share it necessarily took in general affairs, together with its extensive trade and navigation, has given occasion to a multitude of alliances, treaties of peace, guarantees, commercial and other conventions, no less with the states of Asia and Africa, than with those of Europe. The principal of which are:

- I. With Spain (*k*).
- II. Portugal (*l*).
- III. France (*m*).
- VI. Great Britain (*n*).
- V. The House of Austria.

Alliances. 1. Of 25 July, 1672 (*o*):
2. Of 12 May, 1689 (*p*): 3. Of 7 September, 1701 (*q*): 4. Barrier treaty, of 15 November, (1715 (*r*): 5. Convention

(*k*) Chap. ii. § 67.

(*l*) Chap. iii. § 57.

(*m*) Chap. iv. § 81.

(*n*) Chap. v. § 73.

(*o*) Du Mont Corps Diplom. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 203.

(*p*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 229.

(*q*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 89.

(*r*) Du Mont, Tom VIII. P. I. p. 458.

on some contested articles in it, of 22 December, 1718 (s): 6. Accession to the treaty of Vienna, 16 March, 1731, and guarantee of the pragmatic sanction (t).

VI. With Denmark.

Alliances. 1. Of 14 May, 1621 (u). Of 13 August, 1645 (x); treaty concerning the duties in Norway, and at the Sound, of 12 February, 1647 (y). Renewal of the alliance of 27 June, 1657 (z). Alliance of 20 May, 1673 (a); and 6. Of 10 July, 1674 (b). 7. Treaty of friendship and commerce of 15 June, 1701 (c).

VII. With Sweden.

1. Alliance and treaty of commerce of 15 April 1614 (d). 2. Alliance of 11 September, 1640 (e). 3. Guarantee of the peace of Bromsebroe, of 15 August, 1645 (f). 4. Treaty of commerce of 6 July, 1667 (g).

(s) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 551.

(t) Rouffet Supplém. au Corps Diplom. Tom. II. P. III. p. 291. Voyez aussi Mably Droit Publ. de l'Eur. Tom. II. ch. x. p. 265, &c.

(u) Du Mont, Tom. V. P. II. p. 339.

(x) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 312.

(y) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 367, 374.

(z) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 183.

(a) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 223. Voyez aussi Mably. Tom. I. ch. iii. p. 169.

(b) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 269.

(c) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 32.

(d) Ibid. Tom. V. P. II. p. 245, 249.

(e) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 192.

(f) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 521.

(g) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. I. p. 557.

UNITED NETHERLANDS. 451

5. Alliance of 19 January, 1668 (b).
6. Treaty of peace and commerce, of 12 February, 1679 (i).
7. Alliance of 22 October, 1698 (k).

VIII. With the electors of Brandenburg and kings of Prussia.

- Alliances. 1. Of 26 April, 1672 (l).
2. Of 8 March, 1678 (m).
3. Of 30 June, 1688 (n).
4. Treaty concerning the limits in Upper Guelderland, of 29 November, 1715 (o).

IX. With the Hanse cities.

Treaty of union 1615 (p).

X. With Russia.

Treaty of commerce in 1631 (q).

XI. With the Ottoman Porte.

Treaty of friendship and commerce in 1680 (r).

S E C T. LIX.

The rise of the United Provinces from
so very small beginnings to such a conf-
Statefmen
and war-
riors.

(b) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. I. p. 66.

(i) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 432, 437.

(k) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 434.

(l) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 194.

(m) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 343. See also Mably,
Tom. I. ch. iii. p. 150.

(n) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 156.

(o) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 481.

(p) Ibid. Tom. V. P. II. p. 274.

(q) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 3.

(r) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 4.

derable greatness, power, and reputation, is chiefly to be attributed to the abilities of their statesmen and commanders. Among the former were Barneweld, the two De Wits; (all three, however, came to an unfortunate end;) Mr. Beuningen, Mr. Bevering, Mr. Heinfius, Mr. Buys, and others. Among the latter, Maurice, Frederick, and William III. Princes of Orange, eminently distinguished themselves. The first raised the structure of the Belgic republic, of which his father, William I. had laid the foundation; the second completed it; and the third saved it from destruction. The fame of the Belgic naval power has been spread in all the four parts of the world by the admirals Heemskerk, Hein, Tromp Von Galen, Obdam, de Ruiter (32), and many other naval heroes.

S E C T. LX.

Historians:

The history of the United Provinces, from the most remote time, has been written by Mr. Wagenaar (33), and Le Clerc (34).

(32) All these celebrated commanders having died in the bed of honour, the state, according to its laudable custom, has erected stately monuments to their memory. Pref. State of Holland, p. 37. 309, 310. And Blainville's Travels.

(33) *Vaderlandsche Historie, vervattende de Geschiedenissen der Vereenigde Nederlanden, in zonderheit die van Holland, Van den vroegsten Tyden af. XXI. Deelen.* Amsterdam, 1749, 1760, 8vo.

Transactions

Transactions of a certain period of time, by
 Bor (35), Van Hooft (36), Van Reyd (37),
 Hugo Grotius (38), Neuville (39), Aitze-
 ma (40), Wiquefort (41), Bafnage (42),
 and others.

S E C T. LXI.

The constitution and present state of the
 United Netherlands may be learned from

Account of
 the state of
 the United
 Provinces.

(34) Histoire des Provinces Unies des Pays-Bas, 3 Tomes,
 fol. Amsterd. 1737, 1738.

(35) Nederlandsche Oorloghen, Beroerten ende Burger-
 lyke Oneenicheyden. VIII. Deelen. fol. Amsterd. 1621.

(36) Nederlandsche Historien sedert de Overdraght der
 Heerschappye van Keiser Karel V. op Koning Philips II. tot
 het Eynde der Landvoghdye des Graven van Leicester, II.
 Deelen. fol. Amsterd. en Leyden, 1703.

(37) Historie Nederlandscher Oorlogen tot 1608, ende
 continueert tot 1640, door Johan. Van Sande. Leeuwarden,
 1650, fol.

(38) Annales & Historiæ de Rebus Belgicis. Amstelo-
 dami, 1658, 8vo. & 12mo.

(39) Histoire de Hollande depuis la Trêve de 1609 jusqu'à
 nôtre tems, 4 Tomes. 12. Paris, 1703. Suite de l'Histoire
 de Hollande, 2 Tomes, 12mo. Amsterd. 1704. This work is
 attributed to Mr. Baillet.

(40) Saken van Staat en Oorlogh, in ende omtrent de
 Vereenigde Nederlanden, VI. Deelen, fol. Gravenhaag,
 1669, 1672.

(41) L'Histoire des Provinces Unies des Pays-Bas depuis
 le parfait Etablissement de cet Etat par la Paix de Munster.
 2 Tomes fol. à la Haye, 1719, 1743.

(42) Annales des Provinces Unies, contenant les choses
 les plus remarquables arrivées en Europe, & dans les autres
 Parties du Monde depuis les Negociations pour la Paix de
 Munster 1646 jusqu'à celle de Nimègue, à la Haye 1716,
 2 Tomes, fol.

Bentivoglio (43), Boxhorn (44), Schook (45), Temple (46), Basnage 47, Jannison (48), De la Barre de Beaumarchais (49), Seyfarts (50), and other writers (51).

(43) *Relatione delle Provincie Unite di Fiandra.* This is the first piece in the *Relationi* del cardinal Bentivoglio, in Colonia, 1646.

(44) *Commentariolus de Statu Foederatarum Provinciarum Belgii.* Accessit de eadem materia Pauli Merulae *Diatriba.* Hague, 1654. 12mo.

(45) *Belgium Federatum, sive distincta Descriptio Reip. Federati Belgii.* Amstelæd. 1652, 12mo.

(46) *Observations upon the United Provinces of the Netherlands.* London, 1673.

(47) *Description Historique du Gouvernement des Provinces Unies* devant le 1er Tome des *Annales* de Mr. Basnage.

(48) *Etat Present de la Republique des Provinces Unies, & des Païs qui en dependent.* 2 Tomes, 12mo. à la Haye, 1755.

(49) *Le Hollandois, ou Lettres sur la Hollande ancienne & moderne,* à Francf. 1738, 8vo.

(50) Likewise, *The Present State of Holland; or a Description of the United Provinces.* London, 1745.

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